

THE
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL
MAGAZINE,
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For JULY, 1791.

LIFE OF JOHN HOWARD, ESQ. F. R. S.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

JOHN HOWARD, father to the worthy subject of these memoirs, was partner in a very considerable upholstery and carpet warehouse in Long-lane, West Smithfield, and is said to have been descended from a branch of the Norfolk family*. Though he possessed considerable property he was of a very saving disposition, and having a religious turn, his conduct was regulated by the strictest propriety and attention to the duties of life. He preferred great order and decorum in his family, was a constant attendant on public worship, and distinguished himself upon every occasion by his piety and exemplary behaviour. Hence, perhaps, that devout turn of mind which seemed to influence all his son's actions, and which induced him to sacrifice every worldly consideration in order to be beneficial to his fellow creatures, and to alleviate the miseries of mankind.

This great philanthropist was born

at Lower Clapton, near Hackney, about the year 1724 or 1725, in an old house, which had been many years possessed by his family. As his father was a Protestant Dissenter, young Howard was placed at a school at Hertford, under the care of Mr. Worsley, a gentleman of the same religious principles, and thence removed, at a proper period, to an academy for completing the education of young men intended for the ministry among the Protestant Dissenters, which was kept by John Eames, F. R. S. a man of considerable learning and reputation. At this seminary he became acquainted with many persons who afterwards distinguished themselves in the literary world; and among others, with the late Rev. Dr. Furneaux, and the Rev. Dr. Price. With the latter Mr. Howard lived in the closest intimacy, and kept up a correspondence till the period of his death.

* He was allied also to the families of Tatnal, Cholmley, and Barnardiston, and to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. Member of Parliament for Bedford.

After continuing here some time Mr. Howard was put apprentice to Messrs. Newnham and Shipley, wholesale grocers, in Watling-street, but being left in affluent circumstances by the death of his father, which happened in 1742, he gave up all thought of entering into commerce. Being besides affected with a slow kind of nervous fever, which brought on a general debility of the whole system, he quitted Messrs. Newnham and Shipley before the expiration of his time, and letting his house at Clapton, went and hired lodgings in Church-street, Stoke Newington.

Disengaged from the hurry of business, for which his contemplative disposition seems to have been little fitted, Mr. Howard applied himself now to literary pursuits, and the cultivation of his mind. Among other objects which engaged his attention were natural philosophy and medicine. The latter, his knowledge of which he afterwards greatly increased by living in habits of intimacy with some of the most eminent medical gentlemen in this country, proved of signal service to him in his travels. In the course of his tours he often assumed the character of a physician who visited foreign countries for his amusement and health; and as he practised gratis, he found abundance of patients, for all of whom he readily prescribed, and generally with success.

As the state of Mr. Howard's health required more than ordinary treatment, and as he did not meet with that attention in his first apartments which he thought necessary, he removed to another lodging house in the same street, kept by the widow of a person who had been a clerk at Sir James Creed's white lead works. This lady, who was a worthy sensible woman, but a poor invalid, nursed Mr. Howard with the utmost care and tenderness. Her behaviour at length so won his affection, that he resolved to shew his gratitude by marrying her. His proposal, however, was not received by the lady with

that readiness which might have been expected. She had too much prudence not to see the impropriety of a match between a woman turned of fifty, whose constitution was greatly impaired by long sickness, and a young man, whose age did not exceed twenty-eight. She therefore expostulated with him on the extravagance of such a proceeding, and begged leave to decline his kind offer; but nothing could deter Mr. Howard from executing his scheme. By perseverance he at length overcame the lady's objections, and they were privately married about the year 1752. Mrs. Howard was possessed of a small patrimony, but as Mr. Howard inherited an independent fortune, or at least enjoyed what he thought sufficient to supply all the wants of life, he very generously made it over to her sister.

This disproportioned union was not of long duration. Mrs. Howard, who had been in a declining state of health for some years, died on the 10th of November, 1755, aged fifty-four, and was buried at Whitechapel, where Mr. Howard erected a handsome tomb to perpetuate her memory. As his affection for her was founded on the noblest sentiments, he had always behaved to her with great tenderness, and sincerely lamented her death. By way of remembrance of her he ever after carried about with him, and when alone always used, a desert spoon that had belonged to her.

During Mr. Howard's residence at Stoke Newington, the Minister of the Dissenting Meeting-house there resigned his office, and a successor was elected. On this occasion Mr. Howard, who, as we have already observed, was bred a Dissenter, and strictly adhered all his life to that profession, proposed to purchase the lease of a house near the Meeting, and to appropriate it for the use of the Minister. This proposal being adopted, Mr. Howard generously contributed upwards of fifty pounds for the purpose of carrying it into execution.

In the year 1756, Mr. Howard was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, into which he was admitted on the 20th of May. About the same time he formed a resolution of travelling, in order to alleviate that dejection of mind which he felt on the death of his wife; and a desire of seeing the ruins of Lisbon, as they appeared after the great earthquake of 1755, induced him to propose a visit to Portugal, in preference to any other part of Europe. In consequence of this design he communicated his intentions to a Dissenting Minister, his intimate friend, who earnestly dissuaded him from it, on account of the risk he would run of being taken by some of the ships of France, then at war with this country; but Mr. Howard was not to be moved by any arguments, and he accordingly embarked in the Hanover packet for Lisbon. In the Bay of Biscay the packet was chased by a French privateer, and though every possible exertion was made to escape, by carrying a press of sail, the mast unluckily went by the board, and the vessel was captured and carried into the port of Brest.

After this misfortune Mr. Howard behaved with so much haughtiness to the French captain as to occasion perhaps that severity which he experienced in his confinement, and which we have every reason to suppose made a lasting impression upon him afterwards.—“ Before we reached Brest, says he, in his *Account of the State of the Prisons*, “ I suffered the extremity of thirst, not having for above forty hours one drop of water, nor hardly a morsel of food. In the castle of Brest I lay six nights upon straw; and observing how cruelly my countrymen were used there and

“ at Morlaix, whither I was carried next, during the two months I was at Corbaix upon parole, I corresponded with the English prisoners at Brest, Morlaix, and Dinnan. I had sufficient evidence of their being treated with such barbarity that many hundreds had perished, and that thirty-six were buried in a hole at Dinnan in one day. When I came to England, still on parole, I made known to the Commissioners of sick and wounded seamen the fundry particulars, which gained their attention and thanks. Remonstrance was made to the French Court, our sailors had redress, and those that were in the three prisons mentioned above were brought home in the first cartel ships. Perhaps what I suffered on this occasion,” adds our philanthropist, “ increased my sympathy with the unhappy people whose case is the subject of this book.”

When delivered from his captivity Mr. Howard made the tour of Italy, and on his return settled at Whatcombe, a retired and pleasant villa in the New Forest, near Lymington, in Hampshire, which he had purchased, together with a considerable estate, of John Blake, Esq. for the sum of seven thousand pounds.

On the 25th of April 1758, Mr. Howard had married Miss Harriet Leeds, daughter of Edward Leeds, Esq. Serjeant at Law, of Croxton, in Cambridgeshire, and sister to Edward Leeds, a Master in Chancery, and Member in the last Parliament for Ryegate. This lady was a woman of the most amiable disposition, but she unfortunately died in child-bed of an only son*, in the year 1765. Some time before this melancholy event

* Very illiberal and unjust reflections have been thrown out against Mr. Howard respecting his treatment of this son, who was, and perhaps now is, in a private mad-house. The Editor of a certain periodical publication, not very friendly to Dissenters, speaking of Mr. Howard's death, and this son, says, “ This youth was for a long time educated at a ladies boarding-school at Cheshunt, and thence removed to the care of Mr. Magie, who kept a school for Dissenting youths at Pinner, in order that he might be qualified for the ministry, notwithstanding an impediment in his speech gave little prospect of his success in that vocation. But all prospects were blasted by paternal severity, which reduced the young man to such an unhappy situation

event Mr. Howard left Whatcombe, and went to reside at a small house on his paternal estate at Cardington, a village near Bedford, which is always noticed by travellers as one of the neatest and most agreeable in the county. Many of the houses are of brick, they are all tiled, and being surrounded with white pales and small

plantations, produce a very pleasing effect. The appearance of happiness and industry exhibited in this place is in a great measure to be ascribed to Mr. Howard, who every year built a cottage on his own estate, and put a poor family in possession of it, but on express condition that they should attend divine worship every Sunday,

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Rev. Mr. Palmer, of Hackney, a worthy and respectable friend of Mr. Howard's, who,
in order to clear up this matter, published the following letter, written by the Rev.
Mr. Townsend, many years Mr. Howard's pastor at Stoke Newington : " That so
very uncommon an instance of service and persevering philanthropy, as was our excel-
lent friend the late Mr. Howard, should meet with enemies among the selfish, the
envious, and the malevolent of mankind, doth not much surprise me, after having
read the abusive attack that was made by the great calumniator upon the character of
Job, who was pronounced by the Almighty himself the most perfect and upright man
at that time existing. While he was pursuing, shall I say, his godlike course, I have
heard him represented as mad, attended with many a significant shrug of the shoulders,
and twist of the mouth, expressive of much more contempt than pity in the breast of
the speaker. Some years ago several stories were circulated, on purpose, no doubt, to
tarnish the lustre of this exalted character, among which it seemed to be a favourite one,
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he committed when a child, " he once locked him up for several hours in a solitary
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" return till night." From what I knew of Mr. Howard, I was persuaded this dis-
mal story was an absolute falsehood; but had it not in my power to contradict it till
I had an opportunity of mentioning it to him, which I did at his next visit, and then
received from him an account of the following incident, which he supposed must
have given rise to the scandalous report. It was Mr. Howard's constant practice to
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these little excursions, with Master Howard in his hand, (who was then about three
years old) the father being much entertained with the innocent prattle of his son, they
went on till they came to the root-house, or hermitage, in a retired part of the gar-
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The circumstance, he says, that excited him to activity in the behalf of prisoners, was seeing some, who by the verdict of the Jury were declared *not guilty*; some on whom the Grand Jury did not find such an appearance of guilt as subjected them to trial; and some whose persecutors did not appear against them, after having been confined for months, dragged back to gaol and locked up again, until they should pay sundry fees to the gaoler, or to the Clerk of Assize.

In order to redress this grievance Mr. Howard applied to the county Magistrates to grant a salary to the gaoler, in lieu of his fees. The Bench were sensible of the abuse, and desirous of applying a remedy, but they wanted a precedent for charging

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ber for Taunton, repeated the humane attempt, which had failed a few years before, and brought in two bills, which were passed the same session, the one "for preserving the health of prisoners and preventing the gaol distemper;" the other "for the relief of those who should be acquitted, respecting their fees." These bills Mr. Howard caused to be printed, and sent to every county goal in England; and by these acts the tear was wiped from many an eye, and the legislature received for them "the blessing of those that were ready to perish."

At the general election in 1774, Mr. Howard, with a view of acquiring more influence, in order to carry his benevolent schemes into execution, offered himself a candidate to represent the borough of Bedford in Parliament, in conjunction with his friend and relation Mr. Whitbread. They were opposed by Sir William Wake and Mr. Sparrowe, who were returned by the Sheriff, and on an appeal to the House of Commons, Sir William Wake and Mr. Whitbread were declared duly elected. Notwithstanding this disappointment Mr. Howard continued his benevolent exertions in favour of unhappy prisoners, and in the year following made a tour through Ireland and Scotland, intending to publish the result of his enquiries, but conjecturing that something useful to his purpose might be collected abroad, he laid aside his papers and travelled into France, Flanders, Holland, and Germany; and in 1776, flattery himself that his labours had not been fruitless, he revisited these countries, and extended his journey to Switzerland. While thus employed in the noblest of all pursuits, that of wiping the tear from the eye of misery, he had the satisfaction of finding that cities and corporate bodies were not unmindful of his services, or insensible of his philanthropic intentions. By the University of Dublin he was created a Doctor of Laws, and the city of Glasgow, and the town of Liverpool,

still farther honored his name, by inscribing it among the list of their members.

In 1777 Mr. Howard published the first edition of his *State of Prisons*, a work which was the result of his long and unwearyed labours; but hoping that the legislature would see the necessity of a reformation in the goals, and hoping to procure still farther information, which might be beneficial to the cause in which he was engaged, he took a third journey through the Prussian and Austrian dominions, and the free cities of Germany, which he accomplished in 1778, extending his tour through Italy, and some of the countries which he had traversed before.

The observations collected in this journey were published in a second edition of the above work in 1780; and nothing perhaps can more forcibly express the general idea entertained of Mr. Howard's exalted worth than the following panegyric, which was delivered that year by Mr. Burke, in an address to the citizens of Bristol, at their Guildhall. "I cannot name this gentleman," says Mr. Burke, "without remarking that his labours and writings have done much to open the eyes and hearts of mankind. He has visited all Europe, not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces, nor the stateliness of temples; not to make accurate measurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a scale of the curiosities of modern art; not to collect medals, nor to collate manuscripts; but to dive into the depths of dungeons, to plunge into the infection of hospitals; to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain; to take gauge and dimensions of misery, depression, and contempt; to remember the forgotten; to attend to the neglected; to visit the forsaken; and to compare and collate the distresses of all men in all countries. His plan is original, and it is as full of genius as it is of humanity. It is a voyage of philanthropy—a circumnavigation

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"tion of charity! Already the benefit of this labour itself is felt more or less in every country: I hope he will anticipate his final reward by seeing all its effects fully realized in his own. He will receive, not in retail but in gross, the reward of those who visit the prisoner, and he has so far forestalled and monopolized this branch of charity, that there will be, I trust, little room to merit by such acts of benevolence hereafter."

The idea of penitentiary houses, where criminals might be doomed to perpetual solitude, originated, according to every appearance, with the late Jonas Hanway, Esq. who in the year 1777 published an excellent tract, entitled, "Solitude and Imprisonment, with profitable Labour and Spare Diet, the most humane and effectual means of bringing Malefactors, who have forfeited their Lives, or are subject to Transportation, to a right sense of their condition." This plan, replete with humanity, as well as sound policy, was strongly recommended by Mr. Howard; and its utility so far attracted the notice of the legislature, that an Act of Parliament, drawn up by Sir William Blackstone and Mr. Eden, was passed in 1778, for building penitentiary houses, or places of industry, where, by separate confinement and labour, it was hoped that young offenders against the laws of their country might be reclaimed, and made useful members of society.

The original Committee chosen for the management of this undertaking, consisted of Mr. Howard, George Whatley, Esq. and Dr. Fothergill. The Doctor and Mr. Howard approved of a spot for these houses near to that on which the Chapel at Pentonville, Islington, has been lately erected. Mr. Whatley, on the other hand, insisted that they should be built on or near the Isle of Dogs, opposite to Greenwich. As each of the parties adhered to their opinion with inflexible obstinacy, their contention continued so long that the public lost

the advantage of a very excellent scheme, which might have been productive of great benefit to society. Mr. Howard always declared, that no institution of this kind could be regulated with due care and attention, unless such houses were built so near the metropolis, or other capital towns, as to be *easily accessible* to those who might be entrusted with the inspection of them. This appeared to him a matter of so much consequence as to overbalance every consideration which might be supposed to render a different situation more eligible, and as Mr. Whatley could not be persuaded to coincide with him in the same sentiments, he sent, in January 1781, the following letter of resignation to Earl Bathurst, Lord President of the Privy Council:

MY LORD,

"WHEN Sir William Blackstone prevailed upon me to act as a supervisor of the buildings intended for the confinement of certain criminals, I was persuaded to think that my observations on similar institutions in foreign countries, would in some degree qualify me to assist in the execution of the statute of the 19th year of his present Majesty. With this hope, and the prospect of being associated with my worthy friend Dr. Fothergill, whose wishes and ideas upon the subject I knew corresponded entirely with my own, I cheerfully accepted his Majesty's appointment and have since earnestly endeavoured to answer the purpose of it; but at the end of two years I have the mortification to see that not even a preliminary has been settled. The situation of the intended buildings has been a matter of obstinate contention, and is at this moment undecided. Judging therefore from what is past that the further sacrifice of my time is not likely to contribute to the success of the plan, and being now deprived, by the death of Dr. Fothergill, of the assistance of an able colleague, I beg leave

"leave to signify to your Lordship
" my determination to decline all
" farther concern in the business; and
" to desire that your Lordship will
" be so good as to lay before the
" King my humble request, that his
" Majesty will be graciously pleased
" to accept my resignation, and to
" appoint some other gentleman to
" the office of a supervisor in my
" place.

"I have the honor to be, &c.

"JOHN HOWARD."

Soon after the conclusion of the last peace, this idea was however revived, in consequence of the expence incurred by maintaining the hulks at Woolwich, and the insufficiency of the punishment inflicted there to produce the wished-for effect. Another publication of Mr. Hanway's, entitled, "The Neglect of the effectual Separation of Prisoners, the Cause of the frequent Thefts and Violences committed," tended not a little to promote so salutary a measure, and a new committee being chosen, a piece of ground near Wandsworth was judged the most eligible for the situation of the intended buildings, and a plan, for which a reward of one hundred guineas was given to Mr. Blackburne, was approved of. The contrivance of the whole had every appearance of convenience that could be wished for, and nothing seemed wanting to complete so laudable an undertaking but unanimity. The governor's house was so admirably contrived, that the first appearance of riot or idleness could not escape his notice, as he was enabled to see the whole without being perceived by the culprit. Idleness, or a more than ordinary disobedience, was to be punished, not by stripes, but by confinement in a room ten feet square, with smooth perpendicular walls, and lighted from above; the floor was to be made of triangular pieces of wood, each triangle sharpened to the other, and here the criminal was to be shut up, without shoe or stocking, or any other covering than a pair of trowsers; by which means, whether

he moved, stood, sat, or lay, he could receive little enjoyment of his favourite vice.

The ground for this edifice, and conveniences, which comprised about eighty acres, and consisted of the hill, and part of the low ground adjoining to York-house, formerly the seat of Cardinal Wolsey, was surveyed, and properly laid out; the price was also ascertained, and fixed at eighty-five pounds per acre; but after all this trouble, it was discovered that there was no provision in the act to raise money to pay for the ground, and such an expensive undertaking. It, of course, was abandoned, and those sanguinary hopes of reformation, so fondly and so warmly cherished by Mr. Howard, and other friends to mankind, vanished in a moment.

Still anxious to obtain the most complete knowledge on the subject of prisons, Mr. Howard again visited Holland, and some cities of Germany, in the year 1781. He also visited the capitals of Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Poland, and returned through France, Flanders, and Holland in 1783. The substance of all these travels was afterwards thrown into one narrative, a third edition of which was published in 1784.

The difficulties which Mr. Howard found in searching out evidence of iniquity and cruelty in various articles, together with other real sources of distress, obliged him to repeat his visits, and travel over the kingdom of Great-Britain more than once. Yet, after all, he imagined that many frauds were concealed from him. He was, however, successful in enforcing a number of useful regulations, in which the goalers began to be more complying, as much for the advantage of themselves and families, as of their prisoners; and the alterations occasioned by the *Act for preserving the Health of Prisoners* has been of such beneficial tendency, that a person may now look into many a goal without gaining any idea of what it was a few years ago.

One

One of the first objects of censure which occurred to Mr. Howard, was a want of food; and he observes, that in above half the county gaols debtors have no bread, although it is allowed to the highwayman, the house-breaker, and the murderer.—To the want of food, Mr. Howard adds, the demands of goalers, and the infamous extortion of bailiffs.

A deficiency of water he found likewise to be too frequent, both in goals and bridewells, as well as of air, which the bounty of Heaven has bestowed on us, without our care or labour. On this subject he remarks, that methods are contrived to rob prisoners of this *true cordial of life*, by preventing that circulation and change of the salutiferous fluid, without which animals can neither live nor thrive. Many prisons, he observed, have no sewers nor vaults, which rendered them offensive beyond expression. An insufficient allowance of bedding, or straw, perhaps unchanged for months together, may be reckoned among the number of prison sufferings, to a combination of which, Mr. Howard very judiciously attributes that dreadful temper the gaol-fever, more destructive to prisoners than all the public executions in the kingdom.

The promiscuous confinement of all sorts of prisoners of both sexes, our philanthropist considers as not less injurious to their morals, than the above-mentioned evils are to their lives and health. In a prison the check of the public eye is removed, and the power of the law is spent; there are few fears, there are no blushes; the lewd inflame the more modest; the audacious harden the timid; every one fortifies himself as he can against his own remaining sensibility, endeavouring to practise on others what has been practised on himself, and to gain the applause of his worst associates by imitating their manners.

In Mr. Howard's enumeration of bad customs in prisons, he severely

condemns the cruel and illegal practice of requesting garnish of every new prisoner, who, perhaps, having no money, is obliged to give up part of his scanty apparel or bedding, to satisfy this iniquitous demand. Gaming also receives Mr. Howard's strong disapprobation. To diverting exercise he is no enemy, but the riot and profaneness which are the constant attendants on gambling, together with the number of professed gamblers who usually frequent such places, seem cogent reasons for suppressing all kinds of gaming within the walls of a prison.

Loading prisoners with heavy irons is an illegal, tyrannical, and arbitrary practice, generally proceeding from avarice, as a dispensation can always be procured by a bribe. This practice, which is contrary to the law of the land, Mr. Howard highly condemns. In the year 1728, the Judges, on a petition from a prisoner in the Fleet, reprimanded the wardens, and declared, "That a gaoler could not answer for the ironing of a man before he was found guilty of a crime." If it be alledged as necessary for safe custody, we may reply, in the words of Lord Chancellor King, "Let them raise their walls higher." Imprisonment being only the means of securing the person of the accused until he be tried, ought to be attended with as little severity as possible.

Gaol delivery in some counties takes place but once a year. What reparation, exclaims Mr. Howard, can then be made to a poor creature for the misery he has suffered, and the corruption of his morals, by a confinement in prison near twelve months before a trial, on which he is at last declared by his country not guilty?

Though the act passed in consequence of Mr. Howard's examination in the House of Commons, freed the prisoners who were acquitted from the burden of goalers fees, yet they are still subject to a demand of the like kind, made by clerks of assize,

and clerks of the peace, for which they are often detained several days after acquittal, notwithstanding that the act expressly says, " Acquitted prisoners shall be immediately set at large in the open court." The persons alluded to generally give large sums for their places, and, no doubt, ought to be rewarded for their services; but surely some other means might be suggested than levying contributions on the miserable and unfortunate prisoner.

To remove these, as well as other abuses, and to render the state of captivity more tolerable, Mr. Howard suggested a great number of useful regulations, both for our prisons and bridewells, the latter of which he found in general under most shocking management. The non-residence of gaolers; the number of wives and children, or rather the abandoned females admitted under that name, who crowd the rooms of prisons, increasing the danger of disease, and exposing their offspring to moral corruption; the want of distinction between various degrees of turpitude and depravity, and the absolute necessity of separating debtors from felons, are subjects of complaint, well substantiated by facts, and upon which this benevolent writer fully expatiates.

The houses of correction, however, it would appear, are the grand sources of the evil, and unless some reformation be made in these, sending prisoners to them from county gaols will defeat all the care of the most vigilant and attentive gaolers. Many are committed to bridewell, to live in idleness, for the warrants do not always order them to hard labour, and yet this is so highly necessary, that not one should be idle who is not sick. The sexes too should be entirely separated; the strictest rules of sobriety and diligence should be invariably adhered to, and severity should never be exercised but on those who cannot be amended by lenity.—Such obstinate offenders as these should be punished by solitary confinement, and subsisted on only bread and water for a time pro-

portioned to the fault. Mr. Howard thinks that the notion of convicts being ungovernable, is very erroneous; that there is a mode of managing the most unruly, and that mutiny in prisons, and attempts to escape, are often owing to the prisoners being rendered desperate by the inhumanity and bad usage of their keepers. The necessity of having a regular chaplain, and of the constant performance of religious worship is warmly urged; for religion, he is convinced, will have a strong influence in correcting the morals of the worst of men, and he is firmly persuaded, that this alone can effectually accomplish so great and so desirable a work.

Such are the outlines of Mr. Howard's plan, for the improvement of our prisons in general. All these ideas he has detailed with the utmost minuteness; but as want of room will not permit us to enlarge farther on them, we shall now proceed to give a short sketch of his labors when abroad, and of the observations which he made on the state of the gaols, hospitals, and prisons, in the various countries of Europe.

In Holland, Mr. Howard found the prisons remarkably neat and clean. A physician and surgeon attend every gaol; and the prisoners are, in general, healthy, and for the most part kept separate. Executions are very rare, but they are performed in the presence of the magistrates, with the utmost order and solemnity, to which Mr. Howard attributes there being so few. Debtors are also very few, for the magistrates do not approve of confining in idleness any one who can be usefully employed. When any one is imprisoned for debt, the creditor is obliged to pay the gaoler for his maintenance, from six-pence to twenty-pence per day, according to his former situation in life. This allowance must be paid every week, and, in case of omission, the gaoler gives eight days notice; and if the money is not brought, the debtor is discharged. Convicts are not transported, but men are put to labour in

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the rasp-houses, and women to work in the spinning-houses, from this maxim, *make people diligent, and they will be honest*. On this subject, Mr. Howard relates an anecdote of an Englishman, who was a prisoner in a rasp-house at Amsterdam for several years, but permitted to work at his own trade, shoe-making, and who, by being kept constantly employed, was cured of the vices that had been the cause of his confinement. At his release he received a surplus of his earnings, which enabled him to begin business in London, where he became very successful, and afterwards lived in credit. His constant toast after dinner was, *Health to my worthy masters at the rasp-house*.

Mr. Howard, greatly to his astonishment, found that the rack, torture, and dungeons, are employed in other countries besides Spain and Portugal. At Osnaburg, a mode of torturing is used, which is so highly excruciating, that it is distinguished by the title of the *Osnaburg torture*, and the executioners are so expert at their hellish business, that whenever an excess of vengeance is intended against any delinquent in other states, they are constantly sent for. At Hanover also, the execrable practice of torturing prisoners is used in a cellar, where the engine is kept. In the year 1779, a criminal suffered the *Osnaburg torture* twice in this city. The last time, at putting the third question to him, after the executioner had torn the hair from his head, breast, &c. he confessed, and was executed.

At Vienna, Mr. Howard visited all the prisons, which he observed to be in a very bad state, and rendered still worse by many horrid dungeons.—When the Emperor heard of his arrival, he was desirous of seeing him; but Mr. Howard at first wished to evade an interview. His Imperial Majesty, however, having sent a second message, desiring that he might name his own hour, he at length consented to his request. As soon as Howard's name was announced, the Emperor quitted his secretary, and retired with him

to a little room, in which there was neither picture nor looking-glass. On this occasion Mr. Howard spoke to the Emperor with the greatest freedom respecting the state of the gaols in his dominions.

" You have prisoners," said this great philanthropist, " who have been confined in dungeons, without seeing day-light for twenty months, who have not been brought to trial, and should they be found innocent, your Majesty has it not in your power to make a compensation for the violated rights of humanity." Joseph was so much struck with Mr. Howard's observations, that he ordered, much to his honour, several very important alterations to be made in the prisons soon after.

When Mr. Howard was inveighing severely against some dungeons in several prisons in the city, the Emperor said, " Why, Sir, do you complain of my dungeons? Do you not in England hang up malefactors by dozens?" " Sir," replied Mr. Howard, " I would rather be hanged in England than live in one of your Majesty's dungeons." The Emperor afterwards observed to one of our countrymen, *En vérité, ce petit Anglois n'est pas flatterur!*—This little Englishman is indeed no flatterer!—

In Denmark the gaols were dirty beyond description; and though in Sweden Mr. Howard observed the houses to be much cleaner, the prisons were equally filthy and offensive. A want of fresh air in the courts of justice so much affected our benevolent traveller, as to make him ill for a considerable time after. The present King of Sweden has humanely banished all torture. The debtors were more numerous at Stockholm than might reasonably be expected. The prison stands in one of the most unhealthy parts of the city, and the prisoners are permitted to associate with one another as they please.

In Russia, debtors are often employed as slaves by government, and allowed yearly wages, which go towards

wards liquidating the debt. There are here no regular gaolers, all the prisons being guarded by the military, nor are there any crimes capitally punished but treason. The *knot*, however, which is the common punishment, is more dreaded than death. The instrument used for this punishment is a whip fixed to a wooden handle, and consisting of a number of thongs, about two feet in length, twisted together, to the end of which is fastened a single thong, of a foot and a half, tapering towards a point, and which can be changed by the executioner when too much softened by the blood of the criminal.

Mr. Howard saw two criminals suffer this punishment. A party of hussars formed a ring round the whipping post, and a woman, after being stripped to the waist, was bound with cords to the post, and received twenty-five strokes, every one of which seemed to penetrate deep into her flesh. A man was then fastened in the same manner, and received sixty. Both seemed just alive, especially the man, who had yet strength enough to receive a small donation; the woman was seen some days after in a very weak condition, but Mr. Howard could obtain no information of the man.

The Empress has recently made some very humane regulations respecting the different classes of prisoners. Those for debt are, however, never permitted to go out of their rooms; they subsist by alms received from passengers in little boxes placed before their windows, and government supplies them with wood and fuel. This is their situation at Petersburgh; but at Moscow, Mr. Howard saw above one hundred miserable wretches, most of them half-naked, lying on the floor, and at a little distance he found six criminals, in one of the most offensive rooms he had ever entered. One of his visits being on a Sunday, he was surprised to find the prisoners all at work; some piling and planking a canal, at a palace, half a mile from the prison; would willingly be confined for a month

others cutting the barberry hedges in the garden, and the women weeding.

At Lisbon, imprisonment for debt has been prohibited since the year 1774. In all the prisons and infirmaries of this city there is an entire separation of the sexes, and no garnish is taken of prisoners; but the bad custom still prevails of detaining them for gaolers fees. Criminals are often kept in confinement here several years before they are brought to trial, and sometimes even after being tried and condemned, they lie in prison for years before they are executed. Before the late Marquis of Pombal's administration, gaolers used often to let their prisoners out upon parole. A criminal, who had been thus indulged, was ordered for execution seven years after he had been condemned, and on the gaoler's summons he immediately returned to the prison from his work in the country. For this punctual regard to his promise, he received a pardon.

At Lisbon Mr. Howard wished very much to see the prison of the Inquisition, but no endeavours nor application could procure him that satisfaction. He was, however, more successful at Madrid; and through the assistance of Count Campomanes, got access to the Inquisitor General, who received him at prayers, and in a few minutes conducted him to the tribunal, but he could not be prevailed on to shew him any other part of the prison. At Valadolid, he procured a similar admission through the same channel, and was received at the Inquisition prison by the two Inquisitors, who conducted him into some of the rooms. After several consultations, they permitted him to go up the private stair-case, by which criminals are brought to the tribunal, and which lead to a passage, with several doors in it, but none of these he was allowed to enter. When the Secretary told him, that none but prisoners ever entered these apartments, Mr. Howard replied, that he

month

month to satisfy his curiosity; but he was answered, that none came out under three years, and that they took an oath of secrecy.

The prison at Venice was the strongest Mr. Howard ever saw, and contained almost four hundred prisoners. Many of these were confined in dark, loathsome cells for life, executions being rare. Some of them had been confined many years, and declared that they would greatly prefer the galleys to that situation.— Yet in prison they are not chained, and in the galleys they are loaded with irons of twenty-seven pounds weight.

The new prison at Rome appeared to Mr. Howard to be, in many respects, well regulated, but he was sorry to see that it contained a torture chamber. On the outside of this prison there are a pulley and a rope, to draw up malefactors by their hands, which are tied behind them; and after they have been suspended some time, their arms are dislocated by being suddenly let down part of the way. Dr. Moore, in his *View of Society and Manners in Italy*, describes this punishment, and remarks, that when criminals are carried to execution, with little or no solemnity, amidst the shouts of an unconcerned rabble, who applaud them in proportion to the degree of indifference and impenitence which they display, such exhibitions cannot make any useful impression, or terrify the thoughtless and desperate from any wicked propensity. Of the inquisition here, Mr. Howard could gain very little information.

In Switzerland, every seignory, or bailiwick, has a prison, and possesses the power of trying criminals, and capitally convicting them. Some of these prisons are at the top of the lords castles. In most of the cantons,

the felons have a room to themselves, that they may not tutor one another. None of them are chained, and they are kept in rooms more or less strong and lightsome, in proportion to their degree of guilt. Their common allowance is sixpence a day. In many cantons Mr. Howard found no prisoners of this sort, owing, in a great measure, he thinks, to the great care that is taken to give children, even the poorest, a moral and religious education. Another thing is, the laudable police of speedy justice. A criminal has notice of his death, though not of the manner of it, only a short time before he suffers, and he is then indulged with his choice of food and wine.

While Mr. Howard was at Paris, he was very desirous of examining the Bastille, but knowing how little a formal application would avail, he boldly advanced to the gate, and knocking hard, immediately went forward through the guard to the drawbridge, before the entrance of the castle; but while he was contemplating this solitary mansion, an officer came out, very much surprised, who obliged him to retreat through the mute guard, and thus regain that freedom which, for one locked up within those gloomy walls, it was next to impossible to obtain. Mr. Howard, however, with the assistance of a pamphlet, published in France, in 1774, has given a very accurate account of the Bastille. As this pamphlet was prohibited, it had become extremely scarce, and Mr. Howard had no other means of obtaining it, than under the disguise of an old fruit woman, and at the imminent hazard of his life. This circumstance made him think it necessary to retreat privately from Paris, nor did he ever venture to appear there publicly again.

(To be continued.)

REFLEC.

REFLECTIONS ON THE CHARACTER OF PETER THE GREAT,
CZAR OF MUSCOVY.

BY M. PARIS.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

THE history of the Czar Peter is so well known, that it is not necessary for me to enter into any detail with regard to facts. I shall, therefore, confine myself to the few following remarks.

Some author has said, that next to the merit of producing good literary works, the greatest is, that of encouraging men who deserve well of the public. This maxim is true, as far as relates to individuals, but in respect of sovereigns, their protection is of more utility than their talents. Suppose Augustus, or Lewis XIV. had placed all their glory in being great poets, or fine writers, would they have rendered as great service to literature as by being contented to patronize them? We may reckon the Czar Peter among the number of the learned; but the brightest feature in his character was, that of being the creator of a nation, introducing, by means of flattering distinctions, and all the attractions of regal favor, the sciences, and those arts which follow in their train.

Augustus and Lewis XIV. found the work already begun. Before them, great literary men had appeared, but the Czar had every thing to do. The islanders of the South Seas are much nearer to civilization than the Russians were at that time; for it is much easier to polish savages than barbarians. The former are only ignorant; but the latter have imbibed prejudices which they imagine to be science. At present, if any of these celebrated literary characters who travel for the honour of humanity, should form a project of instructing a tribe of Indians, and should he hope to see them before his death attain to the same point of civilization to which the greater part of the nations

of Europe have arrived, we should consider his idea as chimerical, and look upon him as a madman or a visionary.

But what will appear very singular is, that the Czar, when he formed the design of civilizing the Russians, was entirely ignorant with respect to the situation of his subjects. If the adage be true, that people never carry their desires beyond their knowledge, how could such a sublime thought enter the mind of a prince badly educated? What strength of genius must he have possessed, to be able to discover the relation which exists between the sciences and the power of a state? We may, indeed, say, that he must have been endowed with the art of divination. As for my part, I am inclined to think, that this idea did not occur to him all at once. Exposed to the intrigues of Sophia, he, without doubt, only thought at first of securing himself against the designs of a rival. By way of amusement, he formed the regiment of Preobrazinski, and the better to deceive her, he assumed there the humble employment of a drummer. This regiment, properly speaking, was only a band of children, who, when their exercises were over, spent their time in imitating the cries of those petty tradesmen who travelled through the streets. But, with the assistance of some foreigners, who commanded it, this troop became more expert in the military art than all the Strelitzes together.

When he saw the success of this first enterprise, and above all, after the death of his colleague in the empire, the weak John, during whose life it was impossible to project any useful revolution, Peter thought, no doubt, that it was possible to bring other sciences to perfection in the like

like manner. It appears that his first care was to form a navy. The Russians began to construct ships almost in the same manner as the Romans. A Dutch vessel having been driven on their coasts by a tempest, they endeavoured to imitate it, but their first attempt upon Asoph, proved to the Czar, that the two arts which he was so desirous of teaching to his people, were still far from being perfect, and he was not able to take the place without calling in the assistance of the Venetians. He had undertaken the conquest of it, in order to open an entrance for his commerce into the Black Sea.

As the need which he had of foreigners convinced him of the insufficiency of the means employed already, he therefore had recourse to others. He obliged the Russian noblemen to travel, that they might appropriate to themselves the knowledge of those people whom they should visit, and among the instructions given them by the Court, they were enjoined to study, above all, the military art, and that of constructing vessels. These were the two objects to which Peter principally directed his views. He himself went and served an apprenticeship to ship-building, as he had done to the business of a soldier; and though every body knew him to be the Czar, he worked with the carpenters of Sardam, in Holland, from whence he went to Deptford, because he understood that the English constructed their ships according to mathematical principles, whilst the Dutch merely followed a blind routine. Here it may be asked, if to introduce the sciences amongst his subjects, it was necessary that he should study even their most minute parts, and if a prince ought to make himself acquainted in detail with all those arts which he wishes to cause to flourish. It is certain, that in an empire already polished, such an application would lead the sovereign from his real functions. But one may readily perceive, that in a country destitute of re-

sources, and sunk in obscurity like Russia, Peter found himself disengaged from the greater part of those cares which occupy kings in the most flourishing nations. He might, it is true, have travelled, and acquired knowledge without sinking so far below his dignity; but the brightest geniuses in their pursuit of greatness, have sometimes adopted very romantic ideas. Peter, perhaps, had been flattered by the praises bestowed on his modesty by strangers, when he reduced himself to the rank of a common soldier. Besides, this great man's conduct afforded an excellent lesson for the Boyards, as it shewed them, that an ignorant person, however noble he might be, was far inferior even to the meanest artisan.

In my opinion, it was above all in his travels, that Peter felt the necessity of introducing the arts into his country. He visited men of letters, consulted them, became their pupil, and by these means was sensible of their full value. He endeavoured, therefore, to attach them to his person, and carried with him when he returned, a colony of people, well acquainted with the arts and with trades. He compelled the Muscovites to labour under his own inspection; and though these innovations could not fail to displease an ignorant and lazy people, by his firmness and resolution he overcame every obstacle.

Russia, at that period, had no other port than Archangel. To reach it, ships were obliged to sail round the northern part of Europe, and the islands were often shut up by ice. Peter wished, therefore, to have one more commodious, and to accomplish that end, revived some ancient claims to Ingria and Livonia. If Charles XII. for some time acted the part of Alexander, Peter, according to his own expression, did not always act that of Darius. He seized upon these two maritime provinces, which afforded an excellent situation for Peterburgh, and which, besides that, might second his views in reforming the

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As the need which he had of foreigners convinced him of the insufficiency of the means employed already, he therefore had recourse to others. He obliged the Russian noblemen to travel, that they might appropriate to themselves the knowledge of those people whom they should visit, and among the instructions given them by the Court, they were enjoined to study, above all, the military art, and that of constructing vessels. These were the two objects to which Peter principally directed his views. He himself went and served an apprenticeship to ship-building, as he had done to the business of a soldier; and though every body knew him to be the Czar, he worked with the carpenters of Sardam, in Holland, from whence he went to Deptford, because he understood that the English constructed their ships according to mathematical principles, whilst the Dutch merely followed a blind routine. Here it may be asked, if to introduce the sciences amongst his subjects, it was necessary that he should study even their most minute parts, and if a prince ought to make himself acquainted in detail with all those arts which he wishes to cause to flourish. It is certain, that in an empire already polished, such an application would lead the sovereign from his real functions. But one may readily perceive, that in a country destitute of re-

sources, and sunk in obscurity like Russia, Peter found himself disengaged from the greater part of those cares which occupy kings in the most flourishing nations. He might, it is true, have travelled, and acquired knowledge without sinking so far below his dignity; but the brightest geniuses in their pursuit of greatness, have sometimes adopted very romantic ideas. Peter, perhaps, had been flattered by the praises bestowed on his modesty by strangers, when he reduced himself to the rank of a common soldier. Besides, this great man's conduct afforded an excellent lesson for the Boyards, as it shewed them, that an ignorant person, however noble he might be, was far inferior even to the meanest artisan.

In my opinion, it was above all in his travels, that Peter felt the necessity of introducing the arts into his country. He visited men of letters, consulted them, became their pupil, and by these means was sensible of their full value. He endeavoured, therefore, to attach them to his person, and carried with him when he returned, a colony of people, well acquainted with the arts and with trades. He compelled the Muscovites to labour under his own inspection; and though these innovations could not fail to displease an ignorant and lazy people, by his firmness and resolution he overcame every obstacle.

Russia, at that period, had no other port than Archangel. To reach it, ships were obliged to sail round the northern part of Europe, and the islands were often shut up by ice. Peter wished, therefore, to have one more commodious, and to accomplish that end, revived some ancient claims to Ingria and Livonia. If Charles XII. for some time acted the part of Alexander, Peter, according to his own expression, did not always act that of Darius. He seized upon these two maritime provinces, which afforded an excellent situation for Petersburgh, and which, besides that, might second his views in reforming the

the Russians. The difference, it is true, could not be great, as they had formed part of Russia about eighty years before, but nevertheless, they were still found useful.

Some time after, Peter requested to be received a Member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, as he intended to found one on the same plan at Petersburgh; he wished first, to teach his subjects to set some value upon literary titles. In a learned society, a king must be very embarrassing. Letters form a republic, and yet it is difficult for individuals and the sovereign to forget the distance which separates them. But a foreign king, residing in a country remote from France, a king such as Peter, presented no inconvenience. As a man of letters, he had his rights. He was acquainted with the principles of the arts, as well as the processes employed in most manufactures, and there was no science of which he had not some knowledge. He was one of the best engineers in Russia. He drew the plan of several canals, for the purposes of navigation, which he caused to be executed, in order to unite lakes and rivers; and he made known the Caspian Sea soon after William De Lille had made known the Mediterranean.

The Russians did not pass through those progressive stages of civilization, in which nations generally remain for ages. In saying this, I do not mean to make an eulogium on the Czar. I believe, on the contrary, that a mind cultivated by study and reflection, would have readily perceived, that nature had another path which it was necessary to follow. Peter established the sciences by despotism, and this was a new reason for causing them to be hated. Under successors, unworthy of such a predecessor, the edifice he had raised would have fallen to pieces of itself: the people would have been plunged into a more shameful state of barbarity than before; and it was the dread of this which made the Czar think himself obliged to sacrifice his own son.

Poets have in all nations been the first legislators, because, by the charms of their verses they have drawn the human mind from ignorance: they have spoken to the heart and the imagination, a language understood by all mankind. If the sciences do not disgust a people who have not been prepared for receiving them, it is because they present in the arts, which are their children, all the apparatus of luxury, and new enjoyments for the senses. Instead, therefore, of bringing them to perfection, they, at least, reduce them to a level with the most depraved nations. The most civilized people will, doubtless, be those among whom the best morals are established, or who are fettered by the fewest prejudices. We well know that the sciences have contributed, and still contribute to destroy dangerous opinions. But is it not literature that has the greatest influence upon the morals, and which can dissipate the greatest number of prejudices? The medicinal art long since commanded mothers to discharge themselves the most sacred of their duties; but they have only obeyed the voice of imagination and caprice. If the madness of duelling should ever be banished from the world, and if the infamy which justly brands a villain cease to follow his child in the cradle, it will be to literature that we shall be indebted for such benefits. But if morals ought to be the basis of all education, Peter should have made it his first study to create poets and orators amongst the Russians. He would not, indeed, so soon have enjoyed the fruit of his labours, but they would have been much nobler. Knowledge would have been gradually diffused, and would have enlightened, with some of its rays, the most abject classes of society. The whole mass of the nation would have been polished, and the sciences themselves might have been benefited; for it is by the study of literature that individuals, as well as nations, prepare themselves for entering with success into such pursuits.

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OBSERVATIONS ON THE GREATEST HEAT AND COLD THAT THE HUMAN SPECIES CAN ENDURE.

BY DR. ZIMMERMANN.

THE body of man possesses a more considerable degree of flexibility and strength to resist the intensity of climate, than those of any other organised beings. Man can live at the Poles and Equator; on the highest mountains, and in the profoundest abysses of the earth. His body can endure heat, cold, and moisture, a light or a heavy atmosphere, and notwithstanding every change and alteration, he propagates every where, and continues more like himself than other animals, which is a manifest proof of his superiority over them.

What climates, what degrees of heat and cold can man endure? Where does he live, and by what means does he thus exist in every corner of the globe? Is he indebted for this resistance and flexibility to his body, or only to his reason, as Buffon pretends? These are the first questions which present themselves here. We may next ask in what manner climate, food, and other secondary causes act upon him. Are they sufficient to produce all the variations which have been hitherto discovered in man? or did nature create several species, each for their proper climate? In short, in what country was he first created, and what was his primitive figure? Was he a biped or a quadruped? a Patagonian or an Esquimaux? a Negro or a Georgian? Such are the important researches which will be contained in this article, and I confess that I undertake them not without some dread. But as such have been made before, I have nothing to do but to collect materials, observing only a proper choice, since the problem has been resolved almost entirely already. When it may be necessary for me to lay my own ideas before the reader, he may rest assured that I shall do it with that modesty

which becomes those who are conscious of their own inability.

Let us see then how far the habitation of man extends. His boundaries are those of the known world. Even under the eightieth degree of latitude, and perhaps farther, we find the Greenlander and the Esquimaux. Under the Equator we meet with the Negro; and beyond the Equator, the extremity of America and Terra del Fuego, are inhabited by the Peche-rais, and various other tribes. This, however, is not the place to prove, that these nations are, or may be, descended from the same stock. They are men, and that is sufficient for us at present.

Captain Cook, it is true, discovered between the fifty-eighth and the sixtieth degree of north latitude, and the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh and a half of west longitude, from the meridian of Greenwich, a chain of islands, in which he saw no inhabitants; but as we are as yet acquainted only with the coasts of that country, we cannot determine whether it is inhabited or not. Supposing, however, that it is not inhabited, and I am inclined to think that this is the case, we may conclude, if man inhabits countries equally cold, that he may also inhabit that extremity of the antarctic part of the globe. Neither ought it to be objected to us, when we affirm, that man is universally spread all over the surface of our planet, that the interior part of Africa, of which we have not the least knowledge, may be entirely destitute of inhabitants. This objection is destroyed by several relations, and among others by those of Battel; for though that traveller never entirely traversed the whole of that scorching region, he was acquainted with nations, viz. the Gingas and the Anciques, who had penetrated thither,

wither, to enrich themselves with the spoils of the inhabitants.

The most ardent zone, therefore, is inhabited by men as well as the coldest, and the human species appears to be capable of propagating under the most intense degrees both of heat and of cold.

I shall now examine thermometrically the extraordinary difference of temperature which the human race can sustain, and which it really endures, being thus universally dispersed all over the globe. The greatest degree of cold which we know, as exactly measured, is that experienced by Gmelin the younger, in 1735, at Jeniseisk, under the 58th degree of north latitude, and the 110th of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of Fero. This cold began in January, and became so intense, that the mercury fell to the 126th degree below zero; that is to say, under the degree of cold produced by sal ammoniac and ice, according to the scale of Fahrenheit. Magpies and sparrows died in the air and fell to the earth, according to the relation of Gmelin, and every thing that could be frozen out of doors, was converted into ice. This degree of cold, however, must not be uncommon in that country. At Kirenga, or Kirenskoi, on the Lena, under the latitude of $57^{\circ} 37'$, the mercury has fallen to 107, and even 113 degrees below zero. Another instance of this cold, still later, is mentioned by Dr. Pallas, in his voyage to Siberia. He assures us that on the 7th of December, 1772, he experienced so dreadful a degree of cold at Krasnajarsk, under the 56th degree of latitude, and the 110th of longitude, that the thermometer fell to 80 degrees below zero. This, however, was not by far the greatest degree of cold, for when the mercury reached that point which was the lowest marked on the scale of the thermometer, it sunk into the ball and became frozen. He then made an experiment which still farther proved the intensity of the cold. He

exposed to the open air a mass of mercury, well purified, which froze so as to become flexible, and even in part malleable. It is much to be regretted that Dr. Pallas' thermometer was not large enough to mark with sufficient exactness the degrees of so extraordinary a cold: for it would certainly have stood several hundred degrees below zero, since in the experiments of Braun, the mercury did not become fixed till the thermometer stood at 370 degrees below the freezing point. The cold which the English endured in Hudson's Bay, on Churchill river, was not exactly measured; but we have every reason to suppose that it must have been equally intense. Middleton assures us that some of the lakes there freeze to the depth of twelve feet, and that spirits cannot be kept in a state of fluidity even in warm chambers. In the long days of winter they could not light their apartments but with twenty-four pound shot made red hot; and these, added to the heat of a strong furnace, did not prevent the walls and beds from being covered with ice, three inches in thickness. During this cold, if any one went suddenly out into the open air, he was in danger of losing, in a moment, the whole skin of his face and his hands; and even in summer the sun did not thaw the earth but to the depth of six feet. This cold seems to have been still more intense than that of Krasnajarsk, and yet I think myself sufficiently warranted to affirm, that man is capable of enduring it, provided he keeps himself in continual motion. My reasons for entertaining this opinion are as follows:

It is certain, in the first place, that the savages of Canada, whose habitations extend as far as Hudson's Bay, and the Esquimaux, hunt in the winter time, when the cold is equally intense. We cannot therefore suppose that the inhabitants of the cold regions of Siberia do not quit their huts when the cold is equally severe amongst them.

Such cold often takes place, and did

did they not sometimes quit their habitations, all society would be at an end. In short, it is proved by several examples, that the Europeans, though much less hardened, provided they keep in motion, can sustain a still greater degree of cold. The Danes not only live at Nogfak, in Greenland, even under the 72nd degree of latitude, and enjoy good health; but the Dutch, who, in 1597, under the command of Hemskirk, found themselves obliged to pass the winter at Nova Zembla, in the 76th degree of northern latitude, supported a most excessive cold. Their Shiraz wine froze, though their hut, well covered, was heated to a very extraordinary degree. Some of them died, it is true, but those who put themselves in motion, and whose constitutions were found, resisted this cold, unsupportable to the white bear, which is a native of these climates. The journal of the Dutch expressly says, that when the sun quits the horizon in those regions (and then he does not appear again till the end of some months), the cold becomes so intense, that the bears even do not appear, and that the white fox * is the only animal capable of equalling man in this point. Every thing endowed with life, whether plant or animal, perishes, or becomes so much shrunk, that one can scarcely distinguish what it is. Towards the 68th degree of northern latitude, says Dr. Falles, the birch and the ash disappear, and the large fir, which is a native of the north, as well as the larch-tree, assume the form of shrubs, in a soil which is scarcely thawed, even in the middle of summer.

The rein deer, the white fox, and even sometimes the white bear, destined to live in these climates, and for that reason provided by Nature with thick furs, support not, without pain, a degree of cold which the human body can often endure, even when covered with very light clothing. Crantz assures us, that the Green-

landers, who undoubtedly have a very intense degree of cold to sustain, expose themselves to it with their head and neck bare, and with extremely slight clothing. They never kindle fire in their huts, and they may often be found sitting in them with no other covering but a pair of breeches. The savages of Canada undertake long journeys for the sake of hunting in the winter time, being but very lightly clothed; and the peasants of Norway labour under a climate no less rigorous with their breasts naked, so that the hair of their bodies is covered with hoar frost; and it often happens, that when they have heated themselves so much as to perspire, they will roll in the snow to cool themselves, and feel no inconvenience afterwards.

But it is to be observed, that those men destined to inhabit the polar regions, have been expressly formed by Nature for these frozen climates. She has not covered them with hair, it is true, but she has supplied this deficiency by a great mass of thicker and warmer humours. This may be seen by the great warmth of their exhalations. In winter, when the Greenlanders are assembled at divine service, they perspire and exhale such a prodigious heat, that the apartment in which they are, though there be no fire in it, becomes so warm, as almost to stifle an inhabitant of the more southerly regions. The case is undoubtedly the same with the Samoicks and the Ostiacs, who resemble the Greenlanders so much in their figure; and with regard to the Esquimaux, they are undoubtedly of the same race. The inhabitants however of Jeniseisk, Krasnajarsk, and other countries placed under the like parallels, have no need of such a conformation, since that extreme cold does not last among them but a few days, and never whole months.

An interesting observation occurs here, which is that we must not take the heat of the blood or of the skin as

* *Canis Lagopus.*

the measure of the degree of resistance of different species of animals against cold. In that case the cold of Gmelin ought not to have killed the magpies and birds in the air, since, according to the observations of Braun, the birds have a greater degree of heat than man. The heat of the latter is marked according to him 98 degrees, on Fahrenheit's thermometer, whereas that of birds rose to 108, and even 111. Every thing depends therefore on the conformation of the body; and this conformation is perfect in man, that two quadrupeds taken together, are scarcely equal to him in this point.

But to shew the whole extent of the advantages of the human species in this respect, we must consider also the degrees of heat that he is capable of supporting. Adanson found at Senegal, towards the 17th degree of north latitude, that the thermometer, in the shade, stood at 108 and a half, according to the scale of Fahrenheit; and Buffon relates an observation, by which it appears that, in the same country, the thermometer rose to 117 degrees and a half. This clearly proves that Boerhaave was mistaken when he advanced that the sun never communicates to the atmosphere a greater heat than that of 92 degrees, for we see that even in the shade the thermometer rose much higher than the natural heat of the blood.

We may safely affirm, that the country of the Anciques, or even the interior parts of Guinea, are much warmer still. They receive the scorching winds which traverse all Africa, and cannot be refreshed by the west winds like the coast of Senegal. Among us, in Germany, and even Holland, a heat of 96 degrees is extremely disagreeable, and one must keep in a state of absolute rest not to suffer from it; for rest renders a great degree of heat more supportable, as motion enables us to endure intense cold. The Sicilian endures, while the Sirocco blows a heat of 112 degrees, and the negro supports

one of 120, and perhaps even more.

I mention this, however, only as a preliminary argument, to prove to what man may accustom himself in all climates. But what is very remarkable, the degree of heat does not differ much between the individuals of our species: according to repeated observations, Braun found only a degree and a half difference between the extremes.

I shall here mention some experiments, which prove what degree of artificial heat men have been able to endure, though several results would be necessary for my purpose.

In Breitlingen, a mine of Rammelsberg, near Goslar, the miners work in a heat of near 100 degrees; because they must soften the rock by fire, in order to extract the mineral. The whole mountain being composed of sulphureous and metallic particles, produces so astonishing and insupportable a heat, that the workmen, though naked, are obliged, even the day after the fire is extinguished, to cool themselves every hour. I have been in this mine two days after the operation, and my thermometer stood at 97 degrees.

Braun relates that apartments in Russia are generally heated to 116 degrees, and Professor Richmann, that celebrated martyr to electricity, laboured with ease in a chamber heated to 125 degrees.

These examples, however, are but trifling in comparison of those which follow. Messrs. Banks, Solander, Philips, and Blagden, caused a small apartment to be heated to the greatest degree possible. Several thermometers stood at 150 degrees; the mercury afterwards rose to 192, and even 211 degrees, which is only one degree below boiling water. One thermometer only stood this heat, all the rest broke. The observers remained ten minutes in this scorching atmosphere, but their faces and feet suffered excessively.

When any of the company breathed on the thermometer the mercury instantly

stantly fell, and when they put their hands on their faces, that appeared to be a refreshment, with respect to the heat of the air. Dr. Blagden one day heated his apartment even to 224 degrees, and the motion of his pulse was accelerated, in two minutes, from 80 to 145 strokes in a minute. The white of an egg coagulated, and wax melted by this heat. He afterwards increased it to 260 degrees, which is 48 degrees above that of boiling water, yet he endured it for nearly eight minutes, and it was only at the end of this time that he experienced some difficulty in breathing. When this burning atmosphere was agitated it became insupportable, and even when at rest, had a very violent effect on the naked body: upon the whole this experiment fatigued the Doctor excessively. Water covered with oil boiled, and eggs were hardened at the end of ten minutes, and thirteen were sufficient to boil a piece of meat; but it was necessary for this purpose to force the air against it with a pair of bellows.

This heat is assuredly very great, but it is however sensibly less than that mentioned by Du Hamel and Du Tillet. Being sent to Rochefoucault, in the country of Angoumois, to enquire into the nature of a kind of blight which had destroyed the corn, these Academicians saw several young women endure very easily, for ten minutes, the heat of an oven, in which they were baking fruits and meat. They examined this heat with great care, by Reaumur's thermometer, which marks boiling water at 85 degrees; and it appeared that the heat to which these young women were exposed, was fully equal to 112 degrees. This, according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, gives $275^{\circ} 1' 17''$, and consequently surpassed that of Blagden by 15 degrees. These young women, however, by the force of custom, supported this dangerous atmosphere with great ease, without experiencing any bad consequences, and assured the Academicians that they were often under the necessity of ex-

posing themselves to a heat equally intense. What astonishing properties has Nature given to man!!!

Boerhaave, it is true, relates that he was not able to endure the heat of a sugar house, heated to 146 degrees, for a single minute, without danger of perishing. But this only proves that the quality of heated air has a great influence over the human body: for it was doubtless the large quantity of saline particles which rendered the air so intolerable in that sugar house.

Many animals have been exposed also to a like degree of heat. In the experiments of Dr. Blagden a dog endured 220 degrees: but Du Tillet's observations are still more minute. A yellow hammer (*Loxia*) died in a heat of $169^{\circ} 11' 17''$. A rabbit sustained, without any inconvenience, 164 degrees; but a chicken could not long endure 169 degrees without danger of perishing. Mr. Du Tillet finding that it was not so much the scorching air inhaled by animals, as the heated atmosphere which penetrated their bodies, that hurt them, tried to secure them from the latter by wrapping them up in towels, leaving their heads and feet uncovered. He then found that these animals could sustain a heat of 169 degrees for a long time, and without any sensible inconvenience. This still proves, that if the heat experienced by Boerhaave was hurtful, that arose only from the particular property of the scorching atmosphere; for Boerhaave saw a dog die in a few minutes, when exposed to a heat of 146 degrees. Man, however, still distinguishes himself from other animals, since he can endure an artificial heat so much greater.

Mr. de Paw contradicts Boerhaave, therefore, with great reason, when the latter maintains that a heat greater than 96, or 100 degrees, is fatal to man. We have seen that he is not much incommoded by a far greater degree of artificial heat. The reader, however, must not imagine that I consider this artificial heat, of which

I have

I have given instances, as natural or even suitable to man. Instead of that I am persuaded that an artificial heat of 125 degrees, were it continued, would shorten human life; but this, however, does not prevent these experiments from serving to confirm the superior force of our constitutions.

I must nevertheless observe here, that artificial heat must be much more dangerous than the same degree of solar heat in the open air, for various reasons. In artificial heat, as the air is confined, because it cannot be produced but in apartments, it never experiences the smallest variation. This must necessarily deprive it of its elasticity, and render respiration difficult. In the second place, it is not possible to separate the exhalations of burning substances from the heat itself.

Let us for example heat an apartment with wood, coals, or turf, whatever care we may take to render the stove in which they are burnt impenetrable, or to make a current of air, which we dare not, however, often renew, if we only wish to produce a heat of 90 degrees, still particles of the burning matter will pass through the stove into the apartment. The more pernicious these particles are, (and where shall we find wood or turf which, when burnt, does not exhale noxious vapours) the more dangerous the heat will be. In short,

a great heat draws abundance of exhalations from every body which it penetrates, such as men, animals, furniture, walls, &c. In an apartment these vapours remain united, become heated, and deprive the air of all its salutary qualities. This, however, is not the case in an open atmosphere, heated only by the sun. Particles of air, more or less heated, succeed each other; exhalations evaporate at a distance, and the air retains its elasticity. On this account Muschenbroek saw dogs die in an artificial heat of 115 degrees, which undoubtedly had often endured a solar heat of 116 or 117 degrees, without any inconvenience, for such degrees of heat are often indicated by the thermometer, even in Europe.

I have been obliged to enter into some details on this subject, in order that it may not be imagined that I wish to make man stronger than he is, by ascribing to the negro the faculty of living in the open air, in a heat of 130 degrees. What enormous difference, therefore, in the temperature under which man can live, without inconvenience, and in good health, from 200 degrees below zero, to 130 above it! This proves that man may exist in all the known degrees of the heat and cold of our atmosphere, and it is absolutely to the strength of his constitution that he is indebted for this advantage.

**LETTER FROM DR. B. FRANKLIN TO THOMAS RONAYNE, Esq.
AT CORKE, CONCERNING THE ELECTRICITY OF THE FOGS IN
IRELAND.**

SIR,

YOUR observations upon the electricity of fogs and the air of Ireland, and upon different circumstances of storms, appear to me very curious, and I thank you for them. There is not, in my opinion, any part of the earth whatever which is or can be naturally in a state of negative electricity; and though different circumstances may occasion an inc-

quality in the distribution of the fluid, the equilibrium is immediately restored by means of its extreme subtlety, or of the excellent conductors with which the humid earth is amply provided. I am of opinion, however, that when a cloud well charged positively passes near the earth, it repels and forces down into the earth that natural portion of electricity which

which exists near its surface, and in its buildings, trees, &c. so as actually to reduce them to a negative state before it strikes them. I am of opinion, too, that the negative state in which you frequently found the balls which are suspended from your apparatus, is not always occasioned by clouds in a negative state; but more commonly by clouds positively electrified, which have passed over them, and which in their passage have repelled and driven off a part of the electrical matter which naturally existed in the apparatus; so that what remained after the passing of the clouds, diffusing itself uniformly through the apparatus, the whole became reduced to a negative state.

If you have read my experiments, made in continuation of those of Mr. Canton, you will readily understand this; but you may easily make a few experiments, which will clearly demonstrate it. Let a common glass be warmed before the fire, in order that it may continue very dry for some time: set it up on a table, and place it upon the small box made use of by Mr. Canton, so that the balls may hang a little beyond the edge of the table, and rub another glass, which has previously been warmed in a similar manner, with a piece of black silk, or a silk handkerchief, in order to electrify it. Hold then the glass above the little box, and which is driven to the further part of it, by the repulsive power of the atmosphere in the excited glass. Touch the box near the little balls, (the excited glass continuing in the same state) and the balls will again unite: the quantity of electricity which had been driven to this part being drawn off by your finger, withdraw then both your finger and the glass at the same instant, and the quantity of electricity which remained in the box, uniformly diffusing itself, the balls will again be separated, being now in a negative state.

While things are in this situation, begin once more to excite your glass,

and hold it above the box, but not too near; and you will find that when brought within a certain distance, the balls will at first approach each other, being then in a natural state. In proportion as the glass is brought nearer, they will again separate, being positive. When the glass is moved beyond them, and at some little further distance, they will unite again, being in a natural state. When it is entirely removed, they will separate again, being then made negative. The excited glass in this experiment may represent a cloud positively charged, which you see is capable of producing, in this manner, all the different changes in the apparatus, without the least necessity for supposing any negative cloud.

I am, nevertheless, fully convinced that these are negative clouds, because they sometimes absorb, through the medium of the apparatus, the positive electricity of a large jar, the hundredth part of which the apparatus itself would not have been able to receive or contain at once. In fact, it is not difficult to conceive that a large cloud highly charged positively may reduce smaller clouds to a negative state, when it passes above or near them, by forcing a part of their natural portion of the fluid either to their inferior surfaces, whence it may strike into the adjacent clouds, so that when the large cloud has passed off to a distance, the small clouds should remain in a small negative state, exactly like the apparatus; the former (like the latter) being frequently insulated bodies, having communication neither from the earth nor with other clouds. Upon the same principle, it may easily be conceived in what manner a large negative cloud may render others positive.

The experiment which you mention of filing your glass is analogous to one which I made in 1751 or 1752. I had supposed in my preceding letters that the pores of glass were smaller in the interior parts than near the surface, and that on this account they prevented the passage of the elec-

lectrical fluid. To prove whether this was actually the case or not, I ground one of my phials in a part where it was extremely thin, grinding it considerably beyond the middle, and very near to the opposite surfaces, as I found, upon breaking it after the experiment. It was charged, nevertheless, after being ground equally well as before, which

convinced me where the immense & perfluous quantity of electricity on the charged side of a glass is deposited.

I send you my paper concerning meteors, which was lately published here in the Philosophical Transactions, immediately after a paper by Mr. Hamilton on the same subject.

I am, Sir, &c.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE GRANA KERMES AND LOCUSTS IN SPAIN.

FROM TOWNSEND'S TRAVELS.

I Had here an opportunity to examine the natural history of the grana kermes. It is found on the *coccoja*, or *quercus coccifera* of Linnaeus, here growing to the height of from twelve inches to two feet. The grana appear on the stems, or small branches, some near the bottom of the plant, but mostly on the upper branches, yet always protected by the leaves, and fixed to the stem by a gluten, which, both to the sight and to the touch, resembles thin, white leather, spread over the stem and covering, like the cup or calyx of the acorn, a segment of the grana. Upon a more minute investigation, I traced the agglutinating coat through a small foramen into the grana, from whence it had proceeded, and where it spread like the placenta, on the internal surface.

The grana were of various sizes, from an eighth to a quarter of an inch in diameter, perfectly spherical, and covered with a white powder, which being rubbed off, the surface appeared red, smooth, and polished. Upon the same stem, I found the grana in three stages. In the first I discovered only tough membranes, filled with a red juice, resembling blood, but on paper leaving a stain as bright and beautiful as the best carmine: in the second stage, there appeared, under the first coat, or pellicle, a thin, tough membrane, inclosing the eggs, now most minute,

and scarcely to be distinguished without the assistance of a convex lens. Between this membrane and pellicle was the same red liquor, but less in quantity than was contained in the former stage. By a careful dissection I took off the pellicle, which was evidently separated from the inner membrane by what seemed to be the viscera and blood vessels; but near to the foramen these two coats adhered closely together.

The interior membrane is thin, white, and tough, with a lunar septum, forming the ovary, which at first is very small and scarcely discernible, but progressively enlarges, till, in the third stage, it occupies the whole space, when the tincturing juice disappears, and only eggs are to be seen, to the number of fifteen hundred or two thousand.

It is clear to me that the grana derives no kind of nourishment from the plant on which it is fixed; and from its position I am inclined to think, that the little animal chooses the *quercus coccifera*, which in its prickly leaf resembles the holly, only for the sake of shelter and protection from birds.

I put some of the grana into a coffee cup on the thirty-first of May, and June the twelfth, I discovered a multitude of animalculæ of a bright red colour, exceedingly minute, running about the cup with astonishing rapidity, but for short intervals. A friend

friend put some grana into a snuff-box, where he soon forgot them; but when, at the distance of a few weeks, he had occasion to resume his box, he found the top covered internally with dew, and a multitude of winged insects, all dead, adhering to it.

Before my excursion to Buzot, some peasants of Las Aguas had spread themselves on the adjacent mountains, where they collected more than four arrobas, or one hundred weight of grana, which they had sold in Alicant for fifteen reals, or about three shillings a pound.

Beside the grana kermes, I observed on the coscoja many large red excrescences; and of these, two species are distinguished, the one formed on the leaf, the other on the stems of the amentaceous flowers. The former appears in the middle of the leaf, on both its surfaces, and is at first of a green colour; but as it swells, it becomes of a bright red, and occupies the whole leaf, with this exception, that in some a narrow margin of the leaf remains, the latter are longer than the former, and where they are found, the stems of the aments are considerably larger than the rest: yet the florets, which appear on the surface of these excrescences, are not to appearance affected by them. These morbid tumors have many perforations, communicating with little cells, which contain each a small white grub. The cell is formed by a strong membrane, but the substance of the tumor is spongy. In the excrescence on the leaf I could not discover any nidus, although I have no doubt that these, like the former, were occasioned by the ichneumon fly, and that each of them contain an egg.

I might here proceed to give at large the natural history of the locust; but this task having been so well performed before, I shall be exceedingly brief upon the subject.

These voracious insects commit the greatest devastations in the south of Spain; and this proceeds, not merely from the warmth of the climate, but from want of cultivation, because

the females never deposit their eggs in arable land, but always in the deserts. For this reason Galicia, where agriculture prevails, is little infested with the locust.

Adanson, in his voyage to Senegal, has given us a striking picture of the desolation occasioned by a cloud of locusts, which darkened the sun, and extending many leagues, in the space of a few hours laid waste the country, devouring fruits and leaves, and herbage, the bark of trees, and even the dried reeds with which the huts were thatched.

Of the locust tribe Linnaeus reckons twenty species. Those I have observed in Spain are *Grylli Italici*, distinguished by the redness of their wings. Their jaw bones are strong, and dented like a saw. Their head bears a striking resemblance to that of the horse, and this similitude has been remarked in the whole genus. The sound of their wings is said to be like the noise of distant chariots.

They are not always considered as a plague, being commonly seen only in the forests; but when the season has been peculiarly favourable for their propagation; when these rapacious insects darken the air; when their assembled hosts fall upon the rich pastures; when they rob the vines and olives of their foliage; when they devour the corn; when they enter the houses, and lay waste every thing before them, they are then universally regarded as the scourge of heaven. As such they were considered, when, for four successive years, from 1754 to 1757, they ravaged all the southern provinces of Spain and Portugal.

The description of this gloomy scene, at least of one similar to it, which a prophet has given us, is scarcely to be equalled for beauty and poetic fire. He calls upon the people to lament, because a nation, strong and without number, whose teeth are the teeth of lions, had suddenly invaded them. Then turning to the heralds, "Blow ye the trumpet

pet in Zion, and found an alarm in my holy mountain. Let all the inhabitants of the land tremble, for the day of the Lord cometh, for it is nigh at hand : a day of darkness and of gloominess ; a day of clouds and thick darkness ; as the morning spread upon the mountains, a people great and strong ; there hath not been ever the like, neither shall be any more after it, even to the years of many generations. A fire devoureth before them, and behind them a flame burneth. The land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a desolate wilderness, yea and nothing shall escape them. The appearance of them is as the appearance of horses, and as horsemen so shall they run, like the noise of chariots on the tops of mountains shall they leap ; like the noise of a flame of fire that devoureth the stubble ; as a strong nation set in battle array. Before their face the people shall be much pained : all faces shall gather blackness. They shall run like mighty men ; they shall climb the wall like men of war ; and they shall not break their ranks ; neither shall one thrust another ; they shall walk every one in his path, and when they fall upon the sword they shall not be wounded. They shall run to and fro in the city ; they shall run upon the wall ; they shall climb up upon the houses ; they shall enter in at the windows like a thief. The earth shall quake before them ; the heavens shall tremble ; the sun and the moon shall be dark, and the stars shall withdraw

their shining, and the Lord shall utter his voice before his army, for his camp is very great ; for he is strong that executeth his word ; for the day of the Lord is great and very terrible, and who can abide it ?" Joel, cap. ii. 1—11.

Their usual resort is in the forests, and in deserts, where they may safely lodge their eggs without fear of having them disturbed. The female being impregnated, the male hastens to the river, and is drowned in the stream ; the female then deposits her eggs in the nearest uncultivated spot, and protects them from the rain by a covering of glue. Having finished this work, exhausted with fatigue, she drinks and dies. The eggs are hatched in March, in April, or in May, according to the situation and the season ; when hatched, the assembled tribes continue together for about three weeks, till their legs, and teeth, and wings, have acquired strength ; after which they disperse themselves over the neighbouring country, and devour every kind of vegetable.

When the provincial governors are informed, in spring, that locusts have been seen, they collect the soldiers and the peasants, divide them into companies, and surround the district. Every man is furnished with a long broom, with which he strikes the ground, and thus drives the young locusts towards a common centre, where a vast excavation, with a quantity of brush-wood, is prepared for their reception, and where the flame destroys them.

MEANS RECOMMENDED BY THE HUMANE SOCIETY TO BE USED FOR RECALLING TO LIFE PERSONS APPARENTLY DEAD OR DROWNED.

AS many fatal accidents happen in the summer season by persons bathing, or venturing to swim out of their depth, our readers, we hope, will not be displeased with us for laying before them the following rules, which have already been attended with so much success, and

saved the lives of upwards of fifteen hundred people, since the establishment of that excellent and philanthropic institution, the Humane Society.

First, The person, when taken from the water, must be transported with great care to the nearest house, in order

order that the remains of life, if there are any in the body, may not be extinguished. The head must be kept a little raised, and the body must be placed in a natural and easy position, as if reclining.

Secondly, The person must be immediately undressed, stretched out on a warm bed, and the skin well rubbed with pieces of warm flannel. If the body was naked at the time when the accident happened, it must be wrapped up, as soon as possible, in a warm covering, after having freed it entirely from moisture, with a warm woollen cloth.

Thirdly, When the weather is cold or moist, the operation ought to be performed before a good fire, or in a warm apartment; but if the weather be warm and close, the door and windows of the apartment must be opened for the admission of fresh air.

Fourthly, No more than about six persons ought to be admitted to this operation: a greater number would be hurtful, by causing confusion.

Fifthly, The body ought to be gently rubbed with common salt, and for a considerable space of time a warming pan may be moved softly up and down the back, above the covering in which the body is wrapped up. Square bottles filled with warm water, or warm bricks covered with flannel, applied to the soles of the feet, may produce a very good effect.

Sixthly, When this method has been practised without success, for an hour or more, and if there be a warm bath in the neighbourhood, or a bake-house, or brew-house, the body must be carried thither, and left, surrounded by warm objects, for the space of three or four hours, in order to facilitate, as much as is possible, the return of life. If it is a child who has been drowned, its body must be wiped perfectly dry, and immediately placed in a warm bed, between two healthy persons. The good effects, without number, which have been produced by this natural

warmth, sufficiently proves its efficacy.

Seventhly, The body must be rubbed with flannel, and moistened in different places with some kind of spirituous liquor, such as rum or gin; or warm spirits may be applied, particularly to the breast, and the frictions must be often repeated. The nostrils must be every now and then stimulated with a feather, snuff, spirits of hartshorn, or *eau de luce*, in order, if possible, to excite sneezing. Every ten minutes the body ought to be shaken, with a view of producing a more certain effect: those of children ought to be agitated with greater violence, and for a longer space of time. This practice has been found very efficacious.

Eighthly, The smoke of tobacco, introduced into the fundament, may be ranked amongst the means to be employed for restoring life, on account of its stimulating quality.

Ninthly, One of the assistants ought to breathe as strongly as possible through a piece of cloth, or a handkerchief, applied to the mouth of the drowned person, in order to introduce air into the lungs. During this time the nostrils ought to be kept shut with one hand, and the breast gently pressed with the other, both to free it from noxious vapours, and to imitate, in some measure, the motion of natural breathing.

Tenthly, If life should manifest itself ever so little by any signs, such as sighing, breathing with convulsive motions, beating of the arteries, or natural heat, a spoonful of some warm liquid may then be administered; and if it is found that the patient begins to swallow, some cordial liquor may be given, such as warm wine or brandy, but in a small quantity. This may be attended with very great advantages.

Care must be taken not to let blood in such a case, unless, from the symptoms that appear, some Physician or Surgeon should judge it necessary.

These means should be practised for two, and even more hours, though

28 Means used for recalling to Life Persons apparently dead.

no hopes of success should appear, for the vulgar entertain a very dangerous opinion, that people in whom no signs of life are discovered are dead, without a possibility of recovery. Such an opinion has already sent to the grave a great number of persons apparently dead, who might have been again brought to life, had those who attended them had a little more resolution, and continued with firmness and perseverance in their treatment.

To the above precepts we shall add a few observations on the same subject by Dr. Portal, a celebrated physician at Paris. This gentleman is of opinion that fumigations with tobacco are almost entirely useless for recovering drowned people. He blames

the practice of placing them on a bed of warm ashes, and of giving them emetics; the latter, he says, have seldom produced the intended effect. If bleeding be useful, it is only in case the body be taken from the water soon after the accident has happened, when the person's visage is of a red or violet colour, when warmth is still perceived in the body, and when the limbs are flexible, and the eyes bright and swollen. This author recommends great constancy in the administration of the means to be employed, for it has sometimes been found, that people apparently drowned have not been brought to life till seven or eight hours after they have been taken from the water.

REFLECTIONS ON THE FORMATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RICHES,

BY THE LATE MR. TURGOT, SOME TIME INTENDANT OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE.

(Continued from page 434.)

§ 48. *THE use of money has much facilitated the separation of different labours among the different orders of society.*

The more money becomes a universal medium, the more every one is enabled, by devoting himself solely to that species of cultivation and industry of which he has made choice, to divest himself entirely of every thought for his other wants, and only to think of providing the most money he can by the sale of his fruits or his labour, very sure with that money to possess all the rest. It is thus that the use of money has prodigiously hastened the progress of society.

§ 49. *Of the excess of annual produce, accumulated to form capitals.*

As soon as men are found, whose property in land assures them an annual revenue, more than sufficient to satisfy all their wants, among them there are some, who, either uneasy respecting the future, or perhaps only provident, lay by a portion of what they gather every year, either with a

view to guard against possible accidents, or to augment their enjoyment. When the commodities they have gathered are difficult to preserve, they ought to procure themselves in exchange such objects of a more durable nature, and such as will not decrease in their value by time, or such as may be employed in such a manner as to procure such profits as will make good the decrease with advantage.

§ 50. *Personal property accumulation of money.*

This species of possession, resulting from the accumulation of annual produce not consumed, is known by the name of *personal property*. Household goods, houses, merchandize in store, utensils of trade, cattle are under this denomination. It is evident men must have toiled hard to procure themselves as much as they could of this kind of wealth, before they became acquainted with the use of money; but it is not less evident but, as soon as it was known that it was

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the least liable to alteration of all the objects of commerce, and the most easy to preserve without trouble, it would be principally sought after by whoever wished to accumulate. It was not the proprietors of land only who thus accumulated their superfluity. Although the profits of industry are not, like the revenue of lands, a gift of nature, and the industrious man draws from his labour only the price which is given him by the persons who pay him his wages; although the latter is as frugal as he can of his salary, and that a competition obliges an industrious man to content himself with a less price than he otherwise would do, it is yet certain that this competition has neither been so numerous or strong in any species of labour, but that a man more expert, more active, and who practises more economy than others in his personal expences, has been able, at all times, to gain a little more than sufficient to support him and his family, and reserve his surplus to form a little hoard.

§ 51. *Circulating wealth is an indispensable requisite for all lucrative works.*

It is even necessary, that in every trade the workmen, or those who employ them, posseſſ a certain quantity of circulating wealth, collected before-hand. We here again are obliged to go back to a retrospect of many things which have been as yet only hinted at, after we have spoken of the division of different professions, and of the different methods by which the proprietors of capitals may render them of value, because, before that, we should not be able to explain them properly, without interrupting the connection of our ideas.

§ 52. *Necessity of advances for cultivation.*

Every species of labour, of cultivation, of industry, or of commerce, require advances. When people cultivate the ground, it is necessary to sow before we can reap; they must also support themselves until after the

harvest. The more cultivation is brought to perfection and enlivened, the more considerable these advances are. Cattle, utensils for farming, buildings to hold the cattle, to store the productions; a number of persons, in proportion to the extent of the undertaking, must be paid and subsisted until the harvest. It is only by means of considerable advances that we obtain rich harvests, and that lands produce a large revenue. In whatever business they engage, the workman must be provided with tools, must have a sufficient quantity of such materials as the object of his labour requires: and he must subsist until the sale of his goods.

§ 53. *First advances furnished by the land as yet uncultivated.*

The earth was ever the first and the only source of all riches: it is that which by cultivation produces all revenue; it is that which has afforded the first fund for advances, anterior to all cultivation. The first cultivator has taken the grain he has sown from such productions as the land had spontaneously produced; while waiting for the harvest, he has supported himself by hunting, by fishing, or upon wild fruits. His tools have been the branches of trees, procured in the forests, and cut with stones sharpened upon other stones; the animals wandering in the woods he has taken in the chace, caught them in his traps, or has subdued them unawares. At first he has made use of them for food, afterwards to helphim in his labours. These first funds or capital has increased by degrees. Cattle were in early times the most sought after of all circulating property; and were also the easiest to accumulate; they perish, but they also breed, and this sort of riches is in some respects unperishable. This capital augments by generation alone, and affords an annual produce, either in milk, wool, leather, and other materials, which, with wood taken in the forest, have effected the first foundation for works of industry.

§ 54. *Cattle a circulating wealth, even before the cultivation of the earth.*

In times when there was yet a large quantity of uncultivated land, and which did not belong to any individual, cattle might be maintained without having a property in land. It is even probable that mankind have almost every where began to collect flocks and herds, and to live on what they produced, before they employed themselves in the more laborious occupation of cultivating the ground. It seems that those nations who first cultivated the earth, are those who found in their country such sorts of animals as were the most susceptible of being tamed, and that they have by this been drawn from the wandering and restless life of hunters and fishers, to more tranquil enjoyment of pastoral pursuits. Pastoral life requires a longer residence in the same place, affords more leisure, more opportunities to study the difference of lands, to observe the ways of nature in the productions of such plants as serve for the support of cattle. Perhaps it is for this reason that the Asiatic nations have first cultivated the earth, and that the inhabitants of America have remained so long in a savage state.

§ 55. *Another species of circulating wealth, and advances necessary for cultivation, slaves.*

The slaves were another kind of personal property, which at first were procured by violence, and afterwards by way of commerce and exchange.

Those that had many, employed them not only in the culture of land, but in various other channels of labour. The facility of accumulating, almost without measure, those two sources of riches, and of making use of them abstractedly from the land, caused the land itself to be estimated, and the value compared to moveable riches.

§ 56. *Personal property has an exchangeable value, even for land itself.*

A man that would have been possessed of a quantity of lands without cattle or slaves, would undoubtedly have made an advantageous bargain in yielding a part of his land to a person that would have offered him in exchange cattle and slaves to cultivate the rest. It is chiefly by this principle that property in land entered likewise into commerce, and had a comparative value with that of all the other goods. If four bushels of corn, the net produce of an acre of land, was worth six sheep, the acre itself that feeds them could have been given for a certain value, greater indeed, but always easy to settle by the same way, as the price of other wares. Namely, at first by debates among the two contractors, then by the current price established by the agreement of those who exchange land for cattle, or the contrary. It is by the scale of this current species that lands are appraised, when a debtor is prosecuted by his creditor, and he is constrained to yield his property.

(To be continued.)

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

COPY OF A LETTER FROM SIR ROBERT WALPOLE, KNIGHT OF THE MOST NOBLE ORDER OF THE GARTER, TO HIS LATE MAJESTY,
DATED JAN. 24, 1741.

MOST SACRED,
THE violence of the fit of the stone, which has tormented me for some days, is now so far

abated, that although it will not permit me to have the honor of waiting on your Majesty, yet is kind enough to enable me so far to obey your

your orders, as to write my sentiments concerning that troublesome man Mr. Pulteney, and to point out (what I conceive to be) the most effectual method to make him perfectly quiet. Your Majesty well knows how, by the dint of his eloquence, he has so captivated the mob, and attained an unbounded popularity, that the most manifest wrong appears right, when adopted and urged by him. Hence it is that he is become not only troublesome, but dangerous. The inconsiderate multitude think he has not one object but the public good in view; although, if they would reflect a little, they would soon perceive that spleen against those your Majesty has honoured with your confidence, has greater weight with him than patriotism, since, let any measure be proposed, (however salutary) if he thinks it comes from me, it is sufficient for him to oppose it. Thus, Sir, you see that affairs of the most momentous concern are subject to the caprice of that popular man, and he has nothing to do but to declare it a ministerial project, and bellow out the word *favourite*, to have an hundred pens drawn against it, and a thousand mouths open to contradict it. Under these circumstances he bears up against the ministry (and let me add against your Majesty yourself); and every useful scheme must be either abandoned, or, if it is carried in either House, the public are made to believe it is done by a corrupted majority. Since then things are thus circumstanced, it is become necessary for the public tranquility that he should be made quiet, and the only method to do that effectually is to destroy his popularity, and ruin the good belief the people have in him.

In order to do this he must be invited to Court; your Majesty must condescend to speak to him in the most favourable and distinguished manner; you must make him believe that he is the only person upon whose opinion you can rely, and to whom your people look up for useful measures. As he has already several

times refused to take the lead in the administration, unless it was totally modelled to his fancy, your Majesty should close in with his advice, and give him leave to arrange the administration as he pleases, and put whom he chuses into office (there can be no danger in that, as you can dismiss him when you think fit), and when he has got thus far (to which his extreme self-love, and the high opinion he entertains of his own importance, will easily conduce) it will be necessary that your Majesty should seem to have a great regard for his health, signifying to him that your affairs will be ruined if he should die, that you want to have him constantly near you, to have his sage advice, and that therefore, as he is much disordered in body, and something infirm, it will be necessary for his preservation for him to quit the House of Commons, where malevolent tempers will be continually fretting him, and where indeed his presence will be needless, as no step will be taken but according to his advice, and that he will let you give him a distinguished mark of your approbation by creating him a Peer. This he may be brought to, for if I know any thing of mankind, he has a love of honors and money, and notwithstanding his great haughtiness and seeming contempt of honor, he may be won, if it is done by dexterity; for, as the poet Fenton says, " Flattery's an oil that softens the thoughtless fool."

If your Majesty can once bring him to accept of a Coronet, all will be over with him, the changing multitude will cease to have any confidence in him, and when you see that, your Majesty may turn your back on him, dismiss him from his post, turn out his meddling partizans, and restore things to quiet, for then, if he complains, it will be of no avail—the bee will have lost his sting, and become a drone, whose buzzing nobody heeds.

Your Majesty will pardon me for the freedom with which I have given my sentiments and advice, which I should not have done, had not your Majesty

Majesty commanded it, and had I not been certain that your peace is much disturbed by the contrivance of that turbulent man. I shall only add that I will dispose several whom I know to wish him well, to solicit for his establishment in power, that you may seem to yield to their intreaties, and the finesse be less liable to be discovered.

I hope to have the honour to attend your Majesty in a few days, which I

will do privately, that my public presence may give him no umbrage.

(Signed) ROBERT WALPOLE.
Accordingly the scheme took place very soon after, and Mr. Pulteney was created Viscount Pulteney, and Earl of Bath, in the year 1742.

I remain,

Gentlemen,

Your's, &c.

BENJAMIN HYNAM.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE MILITARY PEACE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PRINCIPAL POWERS IN EUROPE.*

T HE Emperor	290,000
The Empress of Russia	470,000
The King of Prussia	224,000
The King of France	192,000
The King of England	58,000
The King of Spain	78,000
The King of Portugal	20,000
The King of the Two Sicilies	30,000
The King of Sweden	49,000
The King of Denmark	67,000
The King of Sardinia	40,000
The King of Poland	15,000
The Grand Signior	210,000
The Republic of Holland	37,000
The Republic of Venice	8,000
The Pope	5,000
T he Grand Duke of Tuscany	
The Elector of Saxony	3,000
The Elector of Hanover	26,000
The Elector Palatine Duke of Bavaria	16,000
T he Landgrave of Hesse Cassel	24,000
T he Duke of Wurtemberg	20,000
Total	1,888,000

There are one hundred and thirty millions of inhabitants in Europe, consequently more than the sixtieth part of that number are continually under arms.

Turkey, Russia, and the Empire, during the war, had a much greater number of troops, as well as Sweden and Denmark; and this number was sometimes greater, and sometimes less in the same year, so that it is impossible to fix it. To form a mean number, therefore, it was better to give the military peace establishment, in order to serve as a basis of comparison.

With regard to France, by a decree of the National Assembly of the 17th of August 1790, the army of that country will consist, dating from the 1st of January, 1791, of 150,848 men, including soldiers and officers, 10,131 of whom will be artillery and engineers. The number of general officers employed will not exceed ninety-four.

METHOD TO PREVENT STEEL FROM RUSTING.

HEAT the steel till you cannot touch it without being burnt; then rub it gently over with virgin wax; put it again into the fire till

the wax is evaporated, and wipe it with a piece of clean cloth. Steel which has undergone this operation will never be subject to rust.

* The Military Establishment is extremely variable in the time of war.

ANALYSIS

ANALYSIS OF CHEMICAL OPINIONS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

[Continued from Page 424.]

PASS on to a part which, as well as the beginning of the seventh chapter, displays the happiest conjunction and co-operation of the dexterous hand, the observant eye, and sagacious mind. To be sensible of the merit of the following contrivances, we have only to recollect how difficult it must have appeared, before a living philosopher, of whom this country has just reason to be proud, a second time taught us the art, to confine, divide, remove from vessel to vessel, examine, and manage at pleasure, fugitive, incoercible, and impalpable fluids, like that which we breathe. Mayow fully exhibits this ingenious invention in his enquiry, whether air can be generated anew, as appeared probable when he considered the various ways in which it is destroyed. On this subject he relates an experiment resembling, as he takes care to mention, one of Mr. Boyle's.

Put a mixture of equal quantities of spirit of nitre and water into a large glass vessel; then plunge a phial into the mixture, and fill it completely; afterwards introduce two or three globules of iron into the mouth of this phial, and invert it on the bottom of the larger vessel, taking care lest the globules fall out of the phial, which may be managed by stopping the orifice with the finger, or some other obstacle, till it be brought to rest upon the bottom of the vessel; the acid will soon act upon the iron, and raise a great effervescence; and the exhalations (*halitus*) raised by the commotion will ascend in the form of bubbles to the top of the phial, and there constitute a gas (*aura*), which will gradually depress the water, as it is generated. As soon as the phial is full, raise it, so that the iron globules may fall out, and remove them from the liquor, taking care at the same time not to lift the

mouth of the phial above its level. On standing, this gas will, by degrees, be condensed, and the liquor will rise into its place; about $\frac{1}{4}$ th will retain the state of gas, and no cold, however intense, will condense it: if the iron be introduced again, fresh gas will be produced, of which part will never be condensed into a liquid.

Here the diminution of the nitrous air depends upon its absorption by the nitrous acid, and in a small degree on the dispersion of the heat excited by the effervescence, to which he imputes it: a little phlogisticated air will also be generated at the same time, and this will not be absorbed. He adds, that if the effervescence be very slow, or if the extrication of air be continued a day or two (in which cases the acid will be saturated with gas) or if vitriolic acid be used instead of nitrous (when inflammable air will be produced) the gas will suffer little or no condensation. Whether this gas be common air or not, is not, he thinks, immediately evident, but the following experiment proves it to have equal elasticity. Take a glass tube, hermetically sealed at one end, of the bore of a quill, and about four fingers breadth long: let fall a drop of water into it, and mark upon a strip of paper fixed to the outside, how high the drop stands, then add another drop, marking its height, and so on. Then put the open end of the tube into the neck of a bottle, and close the juncture with a compact cement. Fill this bottle, tube and all, full of water, and then invert it in a vessel of water. In order to transfer the gas, introduce a small vessel (as a saucer) below the mouth of the phial containing the gas, and remove it into the vessel containing the bottle with the tube. Then bring the mouth of the phial full of gas under the mouth of the bottle

full of water, and incline the phial till the gas ascends into the bottle, which may be quite filled with gas in this manner, though a very little will suffice for the experiment.

Now the bottle is to be removed into a receiver, which is to be exhausted by Mr. Boyle's air-pump; for this purpose, let a small vessel, which, however, must be large enough to hold the mouth of the inverted bottle, be brought under it, and then let it be removed, full of water, and with the bottle resting upon it, under the receiver. When part of the air is exhausted, the gas will expand and make its way out of the bottle: as soon as the air is extracted as much as possible, let it be again admitted, and the water in the small vessel will be forced up into the bottle, and fill it almost entirely, for the gas will occupy but a small part of the tube; and yet this small quantity was before sufficient to fill the bottle, and resist the pressure of that portion of air which could not be extracted as well as of the water.

By measuring the capacity of the whole bottle by dropping water into it, and comparing it with the capacity of the portion of the tube, which the remaining gas filled, we may find how much it had dilated, (provided, however, none escape out of the bottle) for as much as the former exceeds the latter, so great had been the expansion.

He found that the gas expanded to above two hundred times its original bulk, and it would have reached four hundred times, but for the pressure of the surrounding water. Common air does not expand more: care, he adds, must be taken to make the pressure of the surrounding water at all times equal, and to exhaust the receiver at the same degree. The air also, in which a light had gone out, or an animal had died, he finds to be equally expansible with any other kind, a fact hardly consistent with his reasonings upon the mechanism of the air's elasticity. His contrivance for taking this air out of the vessel in which

it had been left, after combustion or respiration had ceased, is sufficiently curious: he fills a phial, or other glass vessel, not too large, with water, and then brings it inverted under the mouth of the former vessel; in order to lift it above the level of the water, he has a stick placed across the inside, and across this stick a cord is thrown, in such a manner, that both ends shall come out under the edge of the vessel; one of these ends he ties round the bottom of the inverted phial, which he wants to raise, and pulls the other till it is brought above the level of the water, in consequence of which, the water it contains falls out, and it is filled with air; and now, by laying hold of the other end of the cord, he can pull it down, take it out, and transfer the air into his measuring apparatus.

But though the gas produced in the manner already mentioned, is as elastic as common air, it does not follow, that it is the same, that is, endowed with vital or igneous particles; since that, in which a light or life have been extinguished, has equal elasticity, though destitute of this principle. The question then is, whether it is capable of supporting life. He first collects a quantity, by repeatedly filling a small phial, as above, by introducing globules of iron into the neck, &c. and then transferring the gas into a larger vessel. The gas thus collected he uses in an experiment, in the relation of which, I find great obscurity, unless he used, as he surely did, his inflammable air only, and not his nitrous: otherwise the result must have been very different; he brings a mouse, confined in a trap, placed on a support, under an inverted glass vessel, and sets the vessel in water, contriving, as above, by means of his syphon, that the water shall stand at the same level within and without; the time the animal lives must be carefully noted: then another mouse is to be placed in exactly the same situation, with the same quantity of fresh air, and now about twice or

thrice

thrice as much gas is to be transferred into this vessel as it contains of air; and the vessel is to be raised till the water within, now depressed by the gas, is of the same level with the support, on which the animal is placed, care being taken not to lift it above the external water. In this case, the animal will live little longer than in the former, when no gas was introduced; whereas, were the gas really air, and fit to maintain life, it ought to have lived at least twice as long. The reason why it lives at all longer is, he believes, because the air, on account of the quantity of gas mixed with it, is breathed in smaller quantities at once. Notwithstanding this and other differences, mentioned in the last chapter, he still imagines there may be a considerable resemblance between common air and gas produced from iron, of which the particles are rigid, and corrosive liquors abounding in nitro-atmospherical spirit.

(*To be continued.*)

ON CRUELTY TO INFERIOR ANIMALS.

BY THE LATE SOAME JENYNS, ESQ.

MAN is that link of the chain of universal existence, by which spiritual and corporeal beings are united: as the numbers and variety of the latter his inferiors are almost infinite, so probably are those of the former his superiors; and as we see that the lives and happiness of those below us are dependent on our wills, we may reasonably conclude, that our lives and happiness are equally dependent on the wills of those above us; accountable, like ourselves, for the use of this power, to the Supreme Creator, and Governor of all things. Should this analogy be well founded, how criminal will our account appear, when laid before that just and impartial Judge! How will man, that sanguinary tyrant, be able to excuse himself from the charge of those innumerable cruelties inflicted on his unoffending subjects committed to his care, formed for his benefit, and placed under his authority by their common Father? whose mercy is over all his works, and who expects that this authority should be exercised not only with tenderness and mercy, but in conformity to the laws of justice and gratitude.

But to what horrid deviations from these benevolent intentions are we daily witness! No small part of mankind derive their chief amuse-

ments from the death and sufferings of inferior animals; a much greater, consider them only as engines of wood, or iron, useful in their several occupations. The carman drives his horse, and the carpenter his nail, by repeated blows; and so long as these produce the desired effect, and they both go, they neither reflect or care whether either of them have any sense of feeling. The butcher knocks down the fatly ox with no more compassion than the blacksmith hammers a horse-shoe; and plunges his knife into the throat of the innocent lamb, with as little reluctance as the taylor sticks his needle into the collar of a coat.

If there are some few, who, formed in a softer mould, view with pity the sufferings of these defenceless creatures, there is scarce one who entertains the least idea, that justice or gratitude can be due to their merits, or their services. The social and friendly dog is hanged without remorse, if by barking in defence of his master's person and property, he happens unknowingly to disturb his rest; the generous horse, who has carried his ungrateful master for many years with ease and safety, worn out with age and infirmities contracted in his service, is by him condemned to end his miserable days

in a dust-cart, where the more he exerts his little remains of spirit, the more he is whipped, to save his stupid driver the trouble of whipping some other, less obedient to the lash.— Sometimes, having been taught the practice of many unnatural and useless feats in a riding-house, he is at last turned out, and consigned to the dominion of a hackney-coachman, by whom he is every day corrected for performing those tricks, which he has learned under so long and severe a discipline. The sluggish bear, in contradiction to his nature, is taught to dance, for the diversion of a malignant mob, by placing red-hot irons under his feet; and the majestic bull is tortured by every mode which malice can invent, for no offence, but that he is gentle, and unwilling to assail his diabolical tormentors.— These, with innumerable other acts of cruelty, injustice, and ingratitude, are every day committed, not only with impunity, but without censure, and even without observation; but we may be assured, that they cannot finally pass away unnoticed, and unretaliated.

The laws of self-defence undoubtedly justify us in destroying those animals who would destroy us, who injure our properties, or annoy our persons; but not even these, whenever their situation incapacitates them from hurting us. I know of no right which we have to shoot a bear on an inaccessible island of ice, or an eagle on the mountain's top, whose lives cannot injure us, nor deaths procure us any benefit. We are unable to give life, and therefore ought not wantonly to take it away from the meanest insect, without sufficient reason; they all receive it from the same benevolent hand as ourselves, and have, therefore, an equal right to enjoy it.

God has been pleased to create numberless animals intended for our sustenance; and that they are so intended, the agreeable flavour of their flesh to our palates, and the wholesome nutriment which it administers

to our stomachs, are sufficient proofs; these, as they are formed for our use, propagated by our culture, and fed by our care, we have certainly a right to deprive of life, because it is given and preserved to them on that condition; but this should always be performed with all the tenderness and compassion which so disagreeable an office will permit; and no circumstances ought to be omitted, which can render their executions as quick and easy as possible. For this, Providence has wisely and benevolently provided, by forming them in such a manner, that their flesh becomes rancid and unpalatable by a painful and lingering death; and has thus compelled us to be merciful without compassion, and cautious of their suffering, for the sake of ourselves; but, if there are any whose tastes are so vitiated, and whose hearts are so hardened, as to delight in such inhuman sacrifices, as to partake of them without remorse, they should be looked upon as devils in human shapes, and expect a retaliation of those tortures which they have inflicted on the innocent, for the gratification of their own depraved and unnatural appetites.

So violent are the passions of anger and revenge in the human breast, that it is not wonderful that men should persecute their real or imaginary enemies with cruelty and malevolence; but that there should exist in nature a being who can receive pleasure from giving pain, would be totally incredible, if we were not convinced, by melancholy experience, that there are not only many, but that this unaccountable disposition is in some manner inherent in the nature of man; for, as he cannot be taught by example, nor led to it by temptation, or prompted to it by interest, it must be derived from his native constitution; and is a remarkable confirmation of what revelation so frequently inculcates—that he brings into the world with him an original depravity, the effects of a fallen and degenerate state; in proof of which we

need only observe, that the nearer he approaches to a state of nature, the more predominant this disposition appears, and the more violently it operates. We see children laughing at the miseries which they inflict on every unfortunate animal which comes within their power: all savages are ingenious in contriving, and happy in executing, the most exquisite tortures; and the common people of all countries are delighted with nothing so much as bull-baitings, prize-fightings, executions, and all spectacles of cruelty and horror. Though civilization may in some degree abate this native ferocity, it can never quite extirpate it; the most polished are not ashamed to be pleased with scenes of little less barbarity, and, to the disgrace of human nature, to dignify them with the name of sports. They arm cocks with artificial weapons, which nature had kindly denied to their malevolence, and with shouts of applause and triumph, see them plunge them into each others hearts: they view with delight the trembling deer and defenceless hare, flying for hours in the utmost agonies of terror and despair, and at last, sinking under fatigue, devoured by their merciless pursuers: they see with joy the beautiful pheasant and harmless partridge drop from their flight, weltering in their blood, or perhaps perishing with wounds and hunger, under the cover of some friendly thicket to which they have in vain retreated for safety: they triumph over the unsuspecting fish, whom they have decoyed by an insi-

dious pretence of feeding, and drag him from his native element by a hook fixed to and tearing out his entrails; and, to add to all this, they spare neither labour nor expence to preserve and propagate these innocent animals, for no other end, but to multiply the objects of their persecution.

What name should we bestow on a superior being, whose whole endeavours were employed, and whose whole pleasure consisted in terrifying, ensnaring, tormenting, and destroying mankind? whose superior faculties were exerted in fountaining animosities amongst them, in contriving engines of destruction, and inciting them to use them in maiming and murdering each other?—whose power over them was employed in assisting the rapacious, deceiving the simple, and oppressing the innocent? who, without provocation or advantage, should continue from day to day, void of all pity and remorse, thus to torment mankind for diversion, and at the same time endeavour with his utmost care to preserve their lives, and to propagate their species, in order to increase the number of victims devoted to his malevolence, and be delighted in proportion to the miseries which he occasioned? I say, what name detestable enough could we find for such a being? Yet, if we impartially consider the case, and our intermediate situation, we must acknowledge, that, with regard to inferior animals, just such a being is a sportsman.

ON MORA L S.

ONE of the reasons which we assigned, for our attempting a new delineation of morals, was the difference of the principles upon which different authors have established their systems,—a difference so great, that what has been advanced by some, may appear absolutely inconsistent with the arguments used by others.

It is by no means necessary for mankind in general, to enter deeply into the controversies that have been raised about the foundations of moral obligation; but it must certainly be requisite, that we should be convinced that there is at least some one principle, from which all the several parts of our duty may be clearly traced out; and to this purpose, it may

may be expedient to take a brief and general view of the various schemes which have been adopted by those who have most studiously investigated the nature of man, and the obligations of morality.

From the earliest ages of which we have any considerable remains, it appears that there has been a great diversity of sentiments upon this point. The ancient philosophers were principally distinguished by the difference of their tenets, with respect to the source and origin of human duty. By one sect, the obligations to virtue, were deduced from its being *agreeable to reason or nature*, and conducive to the public welfare. Another sect chose to contemplate it only as that which is *beautiful and good*; whilst a third excluded every consideration, but that of its tendency to the private pleasure and satisfaction of those who conform to its laws.

Nor have the moderns been more uniform in their representations of the nature and foundation of virtue. Our own countrymen have been particularly ingenious, in their refinements upon the principles of morals. Some have confined themselves to dry and unaffected deductions from the natural relation and fitness of things. Others seem to assert, that the mere arbitrary will of God, is the only possible source of obligation to created beings. Some earnestly contend, that public utility is the only standard of virtue; others plead as strenuously, that a regard to our own private happiness, is the only rational and consistent principle of virtuous action: and whilst some represent reason as the only power within us, that is capable of determining what is right or wrong, others labour to prove, that it is quite a different faculty, a moral sense, a peculiar disposition, or propensity, impressed on the human mind by its great Creator, that renders virtue eligible, and gives it the force of an obligation.

But in fact, virtue is recommended to us by the combined force of each of these principles, motives, and

sanctions. Whatever is founded on reason and truth, may be supported by concurring arguments of various kinds. Inconsistent arguments must indeed destroy the force of each other; but there is no inconsistency in asserting, that the laws of virtue are founded in the original and unalterable nature of things, but that, at the same time, their being the evident will and command of God, gives them an additional sanction.— Nor can it possibly destroy the public utility of virtue, to practise it, from a regard to the private satisfactions which it will certainly yield us. And though reason may be a competent judge of the several parts of our duty, a sacred regard must nevertheless be due to the dictates of that additional principle, which the Deity has implanted within us, the moral sense, which most vigorously and instantaneously prompts us to what is right, and dissuades us from what is wrong.

Each of these several principles are in reality of so extensive a nature, as to lead to almost every part of our duty. An uniform and consistent regard to the will of God, or to the benefit of our fellow-creatures, or a rational regard to our own real interest, will, in most cases, undoubtedly point out to us that course of action, which is agreeable to the laws of reason. But, in a system of morals, the omission of any one of these arguments and motives, must in some measure weaken the force of the whole. A moral sense would be an absurdity, if there were not some real difference in the nature of the things to which its perceptions relate; something that renders them intrinsically worthy of its approbation, or aversion. The will of God would be a very slender obligation, if it were neither founded in the reason of things, nor productive of any important and interesting consequences; and if it be evidently fit and right that we should labour to promote the welfare of mankind in general, it must be equally a part of our duty to provide for our own particular happiness,

in every method that is not inconsistent with the general welfare. And,

If we attentively consider the several parts of morality, we shall find that they are, each of them, strongly enforced by all these concurring motives and principles. It is impossible to fix on any one act of genuine piety and devotion toward God, any one office of friendship toward mankind, or any instance of diligence and assiduity, to establish right sentiments and dispositions in our own minds; it is absolutely impossible to fix upon any one act of this nature, that does not immediately appear to be agreeable to reason and truth, and to the circumstances in which we are placed: and, consequently, agreeable to the will of that Great Being, who has determined every circumstance of our present situation. Nor is there any one act of piety and virtue, which does not in some way or other manifestly tend, both to our own private satisfaction and advantage, and the benefit of mankind in general. To enumerate particulars would carry us too far, and anticipate the design of our future enquiries; but in general it may be asserted, that every branch of virtue is immutably fit and right, amiable in itself, and worthy of every possible degree of approbation; eligible on account of its intrinsic propriety, and yet still more worthy of our choice and practice, on account of its many beneficial consequences, both of a private and public nature.

But though all these several motives may be applied to every part of our duty, and are found to coincide in every supposable case; it may, however, for the sake of consistency, and a distinct comprehension of the whole, be worth while to enquire which of these is the primary and genuine foundation of morality? And here we apprehend it absolutely necessary, to recur to some fixed and immutable standard, immediately resulting from our nature as reasonable beings, and the circumstances in which we are placed. It is from this princi-

ple that all the other arguments in support of virtue, derive their real force; and were this, its chief foundation, once removed, every other consideration must be too weak to yield it any complete support.

'Tis evidently a good rule of action, that we should in every case conform our conduct to the will of God; and every instance of contrary conduct, must undoubtedly be immoral. But why? Because there is an intrinsic fitness and propriety in our submitting to his will. The complete perfections of his nature, and our own manifold deficiencies, strongly inculcate such an obedience to his requirements. The innumerable benefits he has already conferred on us, are so many additional obligations; and as we, and the whole universe, are absolutely dependent upon him, it must be inconsistent with every dictate of reason, in any instance to counteract his will.

In like manner we may observe, with respect to those who place the foundation of moral duty in public utility, that their scheme necessarily pre-supposes some other and more general principle. A reason may be assigned for the duty of consulting social happiness. It is manifest that this is only one branch of that system of conduct, which reasonable beings ought to observe. It does not constitute the whole of our duty; and there are many parts of virtuous conduct, the obligation to which cannot easily be inferred from this principle. Our obligation, therefore, to promote the public welfare, may justly be resolved into one of a higher, and more universal nature, as being only a part of the general rule of right conduct. And the same reasoning may be applied to every other principle that can be assigned as a foundation of morality, excepting that which results from our own nature as reasonable beings, and consists in the conformity of our dispositions and conduct to the circumstances, situations, and various relations in which we are placed.

We

We would avoid all metaphysical subtleties; and shall, therefore, only add, that we may with the greatest certainty determine, what must be the first and leading principle of all moral obligations, by this one plain and easy mark. It must be something that will afford a sufficient reason for every subordinate duty, and needs no other and more general reason to be assigned for itself. And this criterion can be found nowhere, but in the original and intrinsic propriety of such and such kinds of conduct as are suitable to our nature, and to all the circumstances of our being. Some, indeed, have wantonly demanded a reason, why we are obliged to do what we perceive to be fit and right? But it might as well be enquired, why we are obliged to acknowledge that one and two make three? The real fitness and propriety of virtue, and our obligations to practise its laws are evident, as soon as clearly proposed to every being that is endowed with reason; and our great Creator has superadded such moral dispositions in the original frame of our minds, that we cannot seriously attend to a just description of any one part of our duty, but we must immediately approve it, and must feel that it is worthy of our highest regards and most constant observation. And thus it appears, that the impossibility of giving any further reason for our being obliged to that which we perceive to be fit and right,

is so far from diminishing the obligation, that, on the contrary, it greatly heightens and confirms it.

This view of moral obligation, sets the laws of virtue in their proper light, as being eternal and of universal force, incapable of being altered or affected by any power whatever, and equally binding upon every being, however exalted, or however low and mean, whose conduct can be regulated by reason. This view of things renders virtue sacred indeed, and worthy of unlimited esteem and reverence.

But in whatever light these arguments may appear to our minds, or whatever may be the diversity of our sentiments with respect to the grand and primary foundation of morals, let us not exclude from our thoughts any one of the various motives which concur to excite us to the love and practice of virtue. All the different principles by which virtue is so strongly recommended and enforced, are not found in fact sufficient to engage mankind in general to the practical observation of its laws; and we ought not, therefore, to combat any one particular principle of virtue, but to unite them all in its service. From one principle or other, all men are compelled in speculation to acknowledge the excellence and propriety of virtuous conduct; and they ought to be encouraged in taking such views of it, as will have the most effectual influence upon their minds.

JOURNEY FROM THE CITY OF MEXICO TO ACAPULCO, PART OF A VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

I LEFT Mexico the 18th of March. The Spaniard I had hired at Sartillo was determined not to disappoint me in the ideas I had formed of him. He gave me the slip at Mexico, with the horse I had purchased at Potosi. In his room I engaged a Frenchman, who was in distress, and whom I had supported

the latter part of my stay at Mexico, to attend me to Acapulco, but he gave me the slip also the day before I was to let off. I was therefore left by myself, and not being able to delay my departure, set out alone. The roads were good, and well frequented, so that I ran no risque of going out of my way.

After

After having passed a causeway as fine as that of Guadaloupe, I ascended a high sandy hill, and slept at a place named Tchusco, surrounded by the habitations of some Indians, who made charcoal from pine wood in that neighbourhood. Next day I passed through several little woods, and slept at a town called Cuernavaca, situated at the foot of a hill, towards the south. The eye is here delighted by a quantity of water and many gardens, which produce all sorts of European and American fruits. The following days I crossed some steep and dry mountains, where I now and then saw a few pine trees. Yet some corners of the valleys are, however, planted with sugar-cane, and watered, which afford an agreeable diversity. I travelled two days in company with some people who were going to the neighbouring villages; but I was afterwards obliged to take guides.

Leaving the mines of Tascou, or Real Delmonte, to the right, I slept at Cannobial, or the Village of Reeds. On the fifth day of my departure I passed a large, deep, and rapid river, called Rio de las Bassas, or the River of Rafts, which are here made with reeds, and supported by a great number of calabashes. The number of gnats which the waters of this river occasion, is the reason they do not travel until the night is far advanced. I here took a black guide, the road being among some valleys, where I might have lost my way, or through the beds of rivulets, very difficult to a stranger. I believe this negro was not very honest, for in an obscure part of the way, he spurred his horse into a bye-path, and apparently intended to get off with one of my mules that was tied to his horse. I soon came up with him, and he excused himself by saying his saddle was out of order. I kept a sharp eye upon him the latter part of the journey, and held my cutlass ready in my hand, to use on the least ap-

pearance of his ill intentions; but he did not afterwards attempt to stir from me. Being arrived at the village, I dismissed him, and we parted, much discontented with each other. After passing this village, the country is not mountainous, but fertile and well cultivated. I afterwards arrived at a large town called Chilpaningo, inhabited by Indians, as is all the surrounding country, there being very few Spaniards.—Hitherto the soil had produced only a small quantity of pitch, oil, Indian corn, sugar, cotton, cocoa, and fruits; but here it afforded plenty of these productions. The bad roads over mountains were now changed for others more agreeable; the climate was warm, and I saw some squirrels upon the trees.

The whole province sends its productions to Mexico, and Acapulco is supplied from hence during the stay of the galleon. The Indians, who have in general only asses to transport their commodities, are so industrious, as sometimes to carry the load themselves on their shoulders, when the beasts are fatigued, and then they let them walk freely before them. These Indians are cloathed like those to the north of Mexico, and the heat of the climate is so great, that their houses have reed mats instead of walls. Continuing my journey, I reached the river of Pappagallos, or Perroquets, and slept there, with a good Indian, who received me with the greatest cordiality. I had now only twenty-two leagues to go, and I resolved to push on at once. After I had travelled six of them, I rested at a village for two hours, where I hired a guide for the night, my way being over the mountain, which surrounds Acapulco; but about half way, my guide, who was a servant to the man I had agreed with, finding himself much fatigued, solicited me to give him some rest. I therefore left him behind, and proceeded alone, although I had paid his master handsomely to be conducted during the night.

night. I wished to be expeditious, by a sinuosity of the coast, and a tongue of land pretty far advanced, on which is an old fort in bad order, and of little consequence; here the galleon lays: the anchorage is good, and we may come to anchor within less than two cables length of the shore, where the point covers the ships both from the wind and the sea of the road.—There is another bay to the south-west, formed by a tongue of high land, which separates the road from the sea. This is safer than that before the city, and vessels that winter at Acapulco lay there. There is also on the coast, about half a league from the city by land, another bay, very large, which is only safe in summer. The road of Acapulco is about three leagues broad. It has, however, a reef of rocks to the N. W. The entry into the road is too extensive to be defended, it lays S. W. and N. E. They usually range the shore on the starboard in going out, at the distance of a stone's throw.

Sansonate, Acapulco, Matanchel, and San Joseph, are the only ports in New Spain on the South Sea, of which the Spaniards make use.—Sansonate is frequented by the ships from Peru, who come in search of pitch and wood; Acapulco by the galleon from Manilla, which brings the merchandize of India and China, and carries away dollars in return. Matanchel is the place of communication between California and the main; and San Joseph is the port where the galleon waters on her arrival on the coast.

While I resided here, I felt three shocks of earthquakes, the first of which was the most considerable.—As I lay on the ground, according to the custom of the Indians, with whom I always lodged, and in one of those flumbers which comes on before sleep, and in which we are still sensible of any exterior motion, I felt the ground to shake under me, and I heard a noise, like that of a heavy carriage passing through a narrow

row street and between high houses. I thought myself at first at Mexico, where a number of coaches are passing, but I was much surprized at the shock they gave to the walls of the house, and at their weight. I formed this opinion as I lay slumbering, but was soon awakened by the cries of women, who were in the streets, praying to God, and calling out, *Ave Maria, Ave Maria Santissima.* I then knew it was the shock I felt, and had leisure to remark, that the noise at first came from the mountains, and that the shocks were only a kind of propagation of those vibrations which succeed it. It could, therefore, only

be an effect of the motion of the mountain, caused by an irruption of a volcano. I thought the same of the other two shocks, which were not so considerable as this.

The goods for Mexico had all been sent away, and the fair was now confined to a few small traders, who came to sell necessary articles to the factors and officers. They had shipped three millions of dollars, in return for the galleon's cargo, and for the expences of the Philippine islands; at last, having seen about a hundred passengers embark, among whom were forty monks, I went on board myself.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT OF THE QUIMOS, A RACE OF PIGMIES, FOUND IN THE ISLAND OF MADAGASCAR.

BY MR. COMMERSON.

IN the interior parts of the island of Madagascar, there is a race of pygmy people, called in the language of the country Quimos, or Kimos, and who form a considerable tribe, or nation. The distinguishing characteristics of these small people are, that they are whiter, or at least paler in colour than all the negroes hitherto known; that their arms are so long, that they can stretch their hands below the knee without stooping; and that the women have scarcely any breasts, except when they suckle, and even then, we are assured that the greater part of them are obliged to make use of cow's milk, in order to feed their young. With regard to intellectual faculties, these Quimos are not inferior to the other inhabitants of Madagascar, who are known to be very lively and ingenious, though they abandon themselves to the utmost indolence; but we are assured that the Quimos, as they are much more active, are also much more warlike, so that their courage being, if we may use the expression, in the double ratio of their stature. They have never yet been overcome by their neighbours, who have often made attempts for

that purpose, though attacked with superior strength and weapons, for they are not acquainted with the use of gunpowder and fire-arms, like their enemies. They have always fought with courage, and retained liberty amidst their rocks, which, as they are extremely difficult of access, certainly contribute very much to their preservation. They live there upon rice, various kinds of fruits, roots, and vegetables, and rear a great number of oxen and sheep, which form also a part of their subsistence. They hold no communication with the different castes, by whom they are surrounded, either for the sake of commerce, or on any other account whatever, as they procure all their necessaries from the lands which they possess. As the object of all the petty wars between them and the other inhabitants of the island is to carry away on either side a few cattle or slaves, the smallness of the Quimos saves them from being exposed to the latter injury. With regard to the former, they are so fond of peace, that they resolve to endure it to a certain degree, that is to say, till they see from the tops of their moun-

tains a formidable body advancing, with every hostile preparation, in the plains below. They then carry the superfluity of their flocks to the entrance of the defiles, where they leave them, and, as they say themselves, make a voluntary sacrifice of them to the indigence of their elder brethren, but at the same time denouncing, with the severest threats, to attack them without mercy, should they endeavour to penetrate farther into their territories; a proof that it is neither from weakness nor cowardice that they purchase tranquillity by presents. Their weapons are assegais and darts, which they use with the greatest dexterity. It is pretended that if they could, according to their ardent wishes, hold any intercourse with the Europeans, and procure from them fire-arms and ammunition, they would act on the offensive, as well as the defensive, against their neighbours, who would then, perhaps, think themselves very happy to prefer peace.

At the distance of two or three days journey from Fort Dauphin, the inhabitants of that part of the country shew a number of small barrows, or earthen hillocks, in the form of graves, which, as is said, owe their origin to a great massacre of the Quimos, who were defeated in the open fields by their ancestors. However this may be, a tradition generally believed in these cantons, as well as in the whole island of Madagascar, of the actual existence of the Quiinos, leaves us no room to doubt that a part at least of what we are told respecting these people is true. It is astonishing that every thing which we know of this nation, is collected from the accounts of their neighbours; that no one has yet made observations on the spot where they reside; and that either the governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, or the commanders at the different posts which the French possessed on the coast of Madagascar, have not attempted to penetrate into the interior parts of the country,

with a view of adding this discovery to many others which they might have made at the same time.

To return to the Quimos. I can declare, as being an eye witness, that in the voyage which I made to Fort Dauphin, about the end of the year 1770, the Count de Madoave, the last governor, who had already communicated to me part of his observations, at length afforded me the satisfaction of seeing among his slaves a Quimos woman, aged about thirty, and three feet seven inches in height. Her complexion was indeed the fairest that I had seen among the inhabitants of the island, and I remarked that she was well limbed, though of so low a stature, and far from being ill-proportioned; that her arms were extremely long, and could reach, without bending the body, as far as the knee; that her hair was short and woolly; that her features, which were agreeable, approached nearer to those of an European than to an inhabitant of Madagascar; and that she had naturally a pleasant look, and was good-humoured, sensible, and obliging, as far as could be judged from her behaviour. With regard to breasts, I saw no appearance of them, except the nipples; but this single observation is not at all sufficient to establish a variation from the common laws of nature. A little before our departure from Madagascar, a desire of recovering her liberty, as much as a dread of being carried away from her native country, induced this little slave to make her escape into the woods.

Every thing considered, I am inclined firmly to believe in this new variety of the human species, who have their characteristic marks, as well as their peculiar manners, and who inhabit mountains from sixteen to eighteen hundred fathoms above the level of the sea.

To this extract from Mr. Commerfon's memoir on the Quimos, we shall add a few observations by the Count

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Count de Modave, on the same subject.

When I arrived, says he, at Fort Dauphin in 1768, an ill written memoir was transmitted to me, which contained some particularities concerning a singular people, called in the language of Madagascar the Quimos, who inhabit the middle of the island, about the twenty-second degree of latitude. I had heard mention of them several times before, but with so much confusion, that I scarcely paid any attention to a fact which deserves to be cleared up, and which relates to a nation of dwarfs, who live in society, governed by a chief, and protected by civil laws.

I had found in the relation of Flacourt*, a passage respecting this nation, but it made no impression on my mind, because Flacourt rejects the history of these pigmy people as a fable, invented by the players on the *herraou*, who are a kind of buffoons, or quacks, who spend their time in reciting and singing absurd tales and romances.

Flacourt calls these dwarfish people *pigmies*, and mixes their history with that of a pretended race of giants, who, as the ancient tradition of Madagascar assures us, made formerly very great ravage in the island. Flacourt relates, after these players on the *herraou*, that the pigmies sometime ago invaded the country of Anosy, from which they were driven by the Etanos, who are the original inhabitants of the country. The Etanos surrounded the pigmies on the banks of the river Itapera, and having massacred them all, afterwards heaped together in that spot a multitude of stones to cover the bodies of their enemies, and to serve as monu-

ments of the victory which they had gained over them.

After procuring, at Fort Dauphin, and the neighbourhood, all the information possible, I resolved to send a detachment to discover the country of these pygmies. The detail of this expedition is consigned to my journal, but either on account of the infidelity of the guides, or their want of courage, it was not attended with success. But I had the advantage, however, to ascertain the existence of a nation of dwarfs, who inhabit a certain district in the island.

These people are called Quimos, or Kimos; the ordinary height of the men is three feet five inches, and that of the women a few inches less. The men wear their beards long, and cut in a round form. The Quimos are thick and squat; the colour of their skin is lighter than that of the other islanders, and their hair is short and woolly. They manufacture iron and steel, of which they make lances and assagays. These are the only arms which they employ to defend themselves from their enemies, who sometimes attempt to carry off their cattle. When they perceive bands of travellers preparing to traverse their country, they tie their oxen to trees on the frontiers, and leave other provisions, in order that these strangers may find the means of subsisting. When these strangers, however, are so imprudent as to molest them by behaving in a hostile manner, and are not contented with the presents usual in the like circumstances, the dwarfish Quimos know how to defend themselves bravely, and repel by force those who have the temerity to attempt to penetrate by force into the valley where

* This gentleman was director-general of the French East-India Company, and in 1648 had the management of an expedition in the island of Madagascar, which, like all the preceding, proved unsuccessful. This expedition, however, procured a very minute account of the island, which Flacourt was enabled to give, from having resided in it for the space of ten years. It was printed at Paris in one volume quarto, with figures, designed and engraved by the author, and was dedicated to the sub-intendant Forqueret, who had the principal interest in the Company then formed, for carrying on a trade to the East-Indies.

they reside, and to which access is extremely difficult.

Remouzai, who, in quality of captain, followed the father of the chief Maimbou, in the two unfortunate expeditions which he undertook against these people, in order to carry away a part of their flocks, and afterwards sell them at Fort Dauphin, told me that he owed his safety merely to the knowledge which he had of the high and steep mountains, by which their valley is surrounded. Remouzai had been several times among the Quimos, and was employed as a guide by Maimbou's father when he ventured to attack them. The first incursion had no success, but the second was much more fatal, Maimbou's brother was killed; his small army was put to flight, and the number of those who escaped the pursuit of these pygmies, was very inconsiderable. Notwithstanding all my researches, I could never find any person but Remouzai who could give me any certain accounts respecting these two incursions.

Maimbou, with whom I had a good deal of intercourse, for the purpose of procuring provisions to Fort Dauphin, was not old enough to accompany his father in this expedition, but he had conceived such an aversion to the Quimos, that he fell into a violent passion whenever I mentioned them before him, and he wished me to exterminate that race of apes, for such was the injurious denomination which he always bestowed upon them.

A chief of the Mahaffalles, a people residing near the Bay of St. Augustine, who came from a chief in the neighbourhood of the fort, with a view of exchanging silk, and other merchandize, for oxen, said, in the hearing of one of my officers, that he had been several times in the country of the Quimos, and that he had even carried on war against them.—This chief added, that for several years, these people had been harassed by their neighbours, who had burnt several of their villages. He boasted

also of having in his possession a man and a woman of that race, who, he said, were about the age of twenty or twenty-five.

From the accounts of this chief and Remouzai, I am inclined to think that the valley of the Quimos is abundant in cattle, and provisions of every kind. These little people are industrious, and apply with much skill and labour to the cultivation of the earth. Their chief enjoys a much more absolute authority, and is more respected than any of the other chiefs in the different districts of Madagascar. I was not able to learn the extent of the valley which they inhabit, I know only that it is surrounded by very high mountains, and that it is situated to the north-west of Fort Dauphin, and at the distance of sixty leagues. It is bounded on the west by the country of the Matanes.—Their villages are built on the summits of small steep mounts, which are so much the more difficult to be ascended, as they have multiplied those obstacles that prevent all approach to them.

The chief of the Mahaffalles and Remouzai did not agree respecting two points, which are particularly worthy of being ascertained. The general opinion of the people of Madagascar is, that the Quimos women have no breasts, and that they feed their children with cow's milk. They add, that they have no menstrual flux, but that at these epochs, when other women are subject to this inconvenience, the skin of their body becomes of a blood-red colour. Remouzai assured me, that this opinion was well founded, but the chief of the Mahaffalles contradicted it. We must therefore suspend our judgment on this head, and be cautious in giving faith to phenomena which appear to deviate so far from general rules, and to extend to a certain number of individuals.

I procured a Quimos woman, who was taken in war some years ago, by a chief of the province of Mandaraci. This woman is rather of a tall stature, considering the general measure allowed

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allowed to the females of her nation, yet her height does not exceed three feet seven inches. She is between thirty and thirty-two years of age; her arms are very long, her hands have a great resemblance to the paws of an ape, and her bosom is as flat as that of the leanest man, without the least appearance of breasts. My little Quimos was remarkably thin and meagre when she arrived at Fort Dauphin; but when she was able to gratify her voracious appetite, she became extremely lusty, and I am of opinion, that when she is in her natural state, her features will be well worth a careful observation. The chief who sold me this Quimos wo-

man, told me that he had a Quimos man at home, and that he would do his endeavour to send him to me.

If the enterprize I undertook a few months ago had succeeded better, I should certainly have embraced the opportunity of sending to France a male and a female of these pygmies, but I hope to be more fortunate in future. It is certainly nothing wonderful to meet with dwarfs in a country so vast and extensive as the island of Madagascar, the surface of which contains various climates, and abounds with a multitude of different productions; but a real race of pygmies, living in society, is a phenomenon that cannot well be passed over in silence.

At the Charter of the India Company is now near expiring, and as the Affairs of India are become highly interesting, we shall present our Readers with

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

A MONG the great political events of the present century, two, which regard the kingdom of Great-Britain, are peculiarly striking, and will afford useful lessons to the future politician and historian. The emancipation of the British American colonies:—and the rise of the East-India Company to the possession of a vast sovereignty.

Some peculiar circumstances will probably prevent an impartial history of the former transaction from being compiled. But the same delicacy does not exist with respect to the other; the rank and characters of the principal persons who have guided the great events of the latter, does not authorize them to expect such exemption. And a spirit of enquiry, having actuated the British legislature, has opened many of the sources of action in so full and complete a manner that the history may be compiled to great advantage.

The rich produce of those places we now distinguish by the general

name of the East-Indies, in the early ages of the world, drew the attention of mankind; and the commerce thereto has been pursued with great avidity by most nations, both ancient and modern; nor is it to be wondered at, since no trade has more amply compensated the merchant and mariner for their toil and danger, and has seldom failed to aggrandize the state that countenanced it.

By various channels the western countries have been supplied with the commodities of the East, but the general course of this trade, before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, has been by the navigation of the Red Sea. A learned French author* is of opinion, that the inhabitants of Arabia first enjoyed this traffic: from them it passed to the Egyptians, who pursued it to great extent. Egypt, before the passage round the Cape of Good Hope was frequented, undoubtedly held the key to the commerce between the Indian ocean and Europe; and whoever was in pos-

* Mons. Huet.

session

fession of that country, had it in their power to enjoy the profit of this trade.

The same learned author suggests, that the Hebrews, during their captivity in Egypt, learned the nature of this traffic, and pursued it after their settlement in Judea, and also asserts, "that the Cape of Good Hope was known, often frequent-
ed, and doubled in the time of So-
lomon, and long after, the Hebrews
employing the Phænician naviga-
tors." However that may be, it
seems more probable, that, for the pur-
poses of trade, the passage through
Egypt was preferred, as that round the
Cape must, in those early times of na-
vigation, have been attended with
more danger, greater loss of time, and
probably more expence, which caused
the other channels to be preferred.

But, when Egypt fell under the Persian yoke, the way through that country seems, for a time, to have been neglected. The Persian dominions being contiguous to India, the trade was carried on by land, and by means of rivers, which contributed much to enrich some inland cities, which served as a mart for those commodities; and so it continued until the subversion of the Persian empire by Alexander, when the trade returned to its old channel. That conqueror founded Alexandria, undoubtedly with this object in view, as many concurring circumstances prove his close attention to Indian affairs. He did not live to reap the fruits of his intended designs. However, under the patronage of his successors, particularly Ptolemy Philadelphus, that city rose to the highest state of commercial greatness; this Prince also fixed magazines along the Nile, and to facilitate the passage of commodities by land, established the caravans between Cairo and the Red Sea.

The conquest of Egypt by the Romans, placed this advantageous traffic in their hands, but they were for some time deterred from reaping any benefit by it, by the frightful tales of the Arabian merchants, at

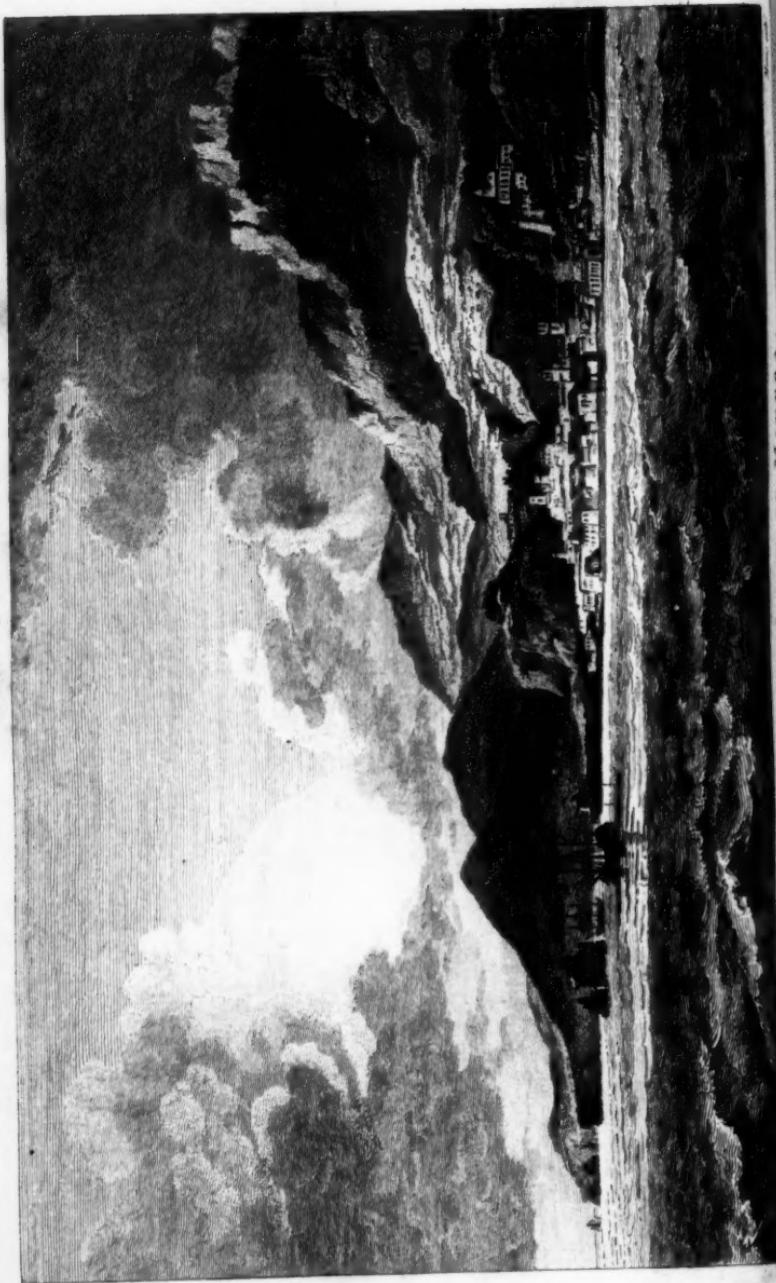
that time the carriers of those valuable treasures: At length, the love of gold triumphed over other passions, and in the time of Augustus this commerce was better known, large fleets sailing up the Nile, and passing into the Red Sea by means of a canal (now filled up): in after times this voyage was made annually to great advantage.

This navigation was first carried on by coasting, and in small ships, sailing down the Arabian Gulph, to a port near the promontory of Seagrus, placed by Ptolemy in latitude 14° 10', and is beyond controversy the point on the Arabian coast now called Cape Fartak, hence they sailed to the island of Pattala, at the mouth of the river Indus. This navigation continued till the time of the Emperor Claudius, when an intelligent pilot discovered a shorter route; for, by observing the course of the trade winds, he was enabled to pass through the freights, and cross the Indian ocean directly to Pattala.

In process of time the Romans made further discoveries, but met with perpetual interruptions from the piracies of the Arabs; this obliged them to embark a certain number of soldiers in each ship, which greatly enhanced the expences of the voyage. At last all difficulties were surmounted, and an annual trade from Alexandria to the mouth of the Indus was established. The articles which principally composed this commerce were, spices, precious stones, and manufactures of silk, cotton, and mohair.

After Constantine had transferred the seat of empire to Bizantium, or Constantinople, the trade still subsisted, Egypt falling to the share of the Eastern monarch; and while the Greek empire existed, it continued in a flourishing condition. Constantinople was the centre of trade between Europe and Asia, and the inhabitants grew immensely rich, for of the many different ways of corresponding with the Oriental nations, there were few that did not benefit this great city. The caravans that pro-
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ceeded from India through Candahar into Persia, supplied those factors, who managed the traffic with the Greeks at the great fairs on the frontiers of the two empires. No inconsiderable part of what was carried by the northern route and Caspian Sea found its way to Constantinople through the Pontus Euxinus. What was conveyed by the Persian coast, and afterwards by land into Syria, came from thence to sea by this city. But above all, they received from Egypt, while it remained under the same sovereign, prodigious quantities of valuable merchandize. The citizens of Constantinople did not avail themselves of all the profit they might have made by this trade; they did not make use of their own ships to carry the commodities; that employment fell to the share of the Italian states; the Venetians, the Genoese, Florentines, and other maritime states of Italy, were to that indebted for their naval power. It was this which enabled them to fit out such formidable fleets, and to make themselves masters of several principal islands, and convenient ports in Europe; while the Greeks, pleased with the

temporary assistance they, from time to time, derived from their squadrons, which they took into their service, never considered the declension of their maritime force.

By this absurd conduct, the Greek empire was in the end brought to absolute ruin. The second monarch of the Saracens from Mahammed, found himself strong enough to demand tribute from Egypt, and, on a refusal, that country was invaded and subdued. By this means the Greeks lost the trade that way to India. In 958, Abu Temim made himself master of Egypt, and laid the foundation of a new city, called Al Cahera, or the Victorious, which the Europeans call Cairo, or Grand Cairo. Temim and his successors were styled Khalifs of Egypt. This city was conveniently situated on the Nile, and became in time no less considerable for its commerce than for being the seat of empire. The old trade to India was once more restored to Egypt, and flourished exceedingly under this race of princes, as appears by the revenue it produced to the Khaliff, being, according to Elmacenus, 3,000,000 crowns of gold.

(To be continued.)

SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF MADEIRA.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL VIEW OF FONCHAL.

MADEIRA, an island of the Atlantic, 2100 miles N. by E. of Teneriffe, and 300 N. of the island of Ferro, was discovered, according to Mr. Ovington, by an English gentleman in 1334, and conquered by the Portuguese in 1431. These people having set fire to a forest, in order that they might warm themselves, it continued burning for several years, and the ashes rendered the soil extremely fertile, especially in wine, which it now produces in great abundance. This wine keeps best in the hottest climates under the torrid zone. Such inhabitants, therefore, of the Caribbean Islands as are able to afford

it scarcely drink any thing else, and the Madeira wine brought to England is little valued, unless it has been a voyage to the East or West Indies. The air here is temperate, pure, and serene, and oranges, bananoes, and other southern fruits, are found in great plenty. This island abounds also with cattle and game, but it produces no venomous creatures. It is well watered and peopled. The inhabitants are good-tempered, but, like those of most warm countries, greatly addicted to pleasure.

Fonchal, the capital of the island, a view of which, with the neighbouring mountains, is given in the annexed

nected plate, stands in long. $17^{\circ} 6' W.$ and lat. $32^{\circ} 38' N.$ It is situated round a bay, on the gentle ascent of the first hill, and forms a kind of amphitheatre. Its public and private buildings are, for the most part, entirely white. Many of them are two stories high, and are covered with low roofs. On the sea side there are several batteries, and platforms with cannon. An old castle, which commands the road, stands on the top of a black rock, surrounded by the sea at high water, and by the English called Loo-Rock. On a neighbouring eminence above the town there is another, called St. Joan da Pico, or St. John's Castle. The hills beyond the town exhibit a most delightful appearance to the eye of the traveller, being covered with vineyards, enclosures, plantations, and groves, inter-

spersed with country-houses, churches, and gardens. The city, however, is far from answering the expectation excited by its appearance towards the road, for the streets are narrow, ill paved, and dirty. The houses are built of free-stone, or of brick, but they are dark, and only a few belonging to the English merchants, or the principal inhabitants, are provided with glass windows: all the rest have a kind of lattice work in their stead, which hangs on hinges, and may be lifted up occasionally. The churches and monasteries are exceedingly plain edifices, which display little of the architectural art, the light admitted into them serving only to discover a profusion of tinsel ornaments, arranged in a manner truly Gothic, without either judgement or taste.

ON THE ANCIENT NAVIGATION OF THE VENETIANS.

[Concluded from Page 447.]

IN the history of voyages, we find an observation, made by Christopher Columbus, of the declination of the needle, on which he remarks, that the variation was greater in those new seas, than in the Mediterranean. This somewhat embarrassed him, and the Spaniards regarded it as a new phenomenon.

But how could he detect this error in the compass? With the astrolabe, which was a very ancient instrument, used not only in astronomy but in navigation. And we are informed that Columbus made use of this instrument, in that fortunate attempt, in which he discovered the new world. And Cadamotta, our countryman, before that time, had taken the latitudes of the coasts of Africa as far as the second degree. And even before Cadamotta, the two brothers, Zeno, had taken the latitudes of the lands and islands they had discovered to the North, as may be seen on some northern sea charts, laid down by them.

But this variation of the needle is not regular, it not only continues increasing for a certain number of years, but it also diminishes for the same period: and it seems as if this periodical increase and decrease had a stated period, which extends equally to the right or the left of the pole. The more so, as it is beyond a doubt, that the compass which now declines in our latitudes about seventeen degrees to the north-west, has declined for a time, not only much less, but even some degrees to the north-east. If we could have constant observations for many ages respecting this phenomenon, it would then be easy to determine how far the variation of the needle can extend, as well to the S. E. as to the N. W. But whether the ancients were not attentive in their observations, or their observations are lost, we have very few of them remaining.

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However, by attending only to what is probable, and by the help of truth, I think by the data we have, we may discover the theory of this curious phenomenon. It is, however, proved by experience, that in ours and the neighbouring seas, the needle declines about 17° to the N. W. and it seems to have remained there for many years : as has been proved at Paris, where it has varied little from 20 degrees since 1773.

In 1657, Fathers Riccioli and Grimaldi observed, that the needle did not decline more than one degree 20 minutes to the N. W. Here, then, we have two points from which we may calculate the term of years which corresponds with every degree of the variation of the needle. This variation in 126 years of $15\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, or thereabouts, gives about eight years to a degree. This differs much from the calculation of M. de la Lande, who allows only six years. I do not know how this difference can arise. But is it not possible that this varia-

tion of the needle may be both accelerated and retrograde? And I suspect it is so : because by comparing the observations of Riccioli in 1657, and of Pozza, in 1669, they do not agree with the period above-mentioned, and we may conclude, that the motion of the needle from N. E. to N. W. is accelerated, and that the first terms of its progression should not be taken for the natural order of the arithmetical series.

It is necessary we should be furnished with many more data, to determine the nature of such a progression.

Let us suppose here for a moment, that the variation of the needle is fixed in some latitudes ; it is still dubious whether it is the same on each side the pole. But our ancestors, knowing the variation of the needle, knew also that *that* also varied ; but gave themselves little trouble about it, as they knew the latter variation was very small, and that they had an easy method of correcting it when necessary.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

SUR LA PEINE DE MORT. *On Capital Punishments.* By J. Jallet, Curate, and Deputy from the Procéce of Poitou. 8vo. Paris.

frequently more atrocious and unjust than the crimes that it punishes.— Nor will he admit the necessity or right of inflicting judicial death in any case whatever, even in that of *murder*. He enlarges on the absurdity of depriving the community of *another* ; or, where there are accomplices, of several of its members, because an act of violence has already deprived it of *one*.

A law, which, by enfeebling society, militates against its interest : a law which either equity or humanity prompts to suspend, evade, or mitigate, must be absurd in its principle ; and to vest the power of pardoning in any hand whatever, is a satire on that code, which renders such an act of violence an act of necessity. He infuses with much energy, on the pernicious influence which the frequency of public executions poisons over the minds of the populace ; and he observes, that ex-

perience demonstrates their inefficacy, since they not only render the heart obdurate, but the concourse of persons assembled on such occasions, present stronger temptations to a thievish disposition, than solemn scenes afford motives for reformation.

Our readers will perceive, from the above slight sketch, that the general sentiments of this very humane and sensible author perfectly coincide with those of *Baccaria*, M. *Pastoret*, and other writers on the penal laws, and also with the imperial code, which totally excludes human sacrifices; but the argument by which he maintains his thesis, that, *in no case whatever is it lawful to take away the life of a malefactor*, having novelty and ingenuity, united with humanity, to recommend it, we cannot refrain from giving the substance of the paragraph.

He assumes the doctrine advanced as the basis of the new constitution in France, that the sovereign possesses no other powers than those conferred by the nature of the social compact; that the object of this compact is to unite the wills of individuals, to form one general will; the strength of individuals, to compose the public strength, and rights of individuals to establish common rights, so that the property of each should be protected by the whole, through the medium of the laws.—But property is of two kinds, natural and acquired: the first, *life and liberty*, are the claims of nature; the other arise from the exercise of man's intellectual and corporeal powers.

Between the two kinds (M. Jallet observes) there is an essential decisive difference relative to the question before us: it is, that man has a right to alienate his *acquired* property, but those properties from nature are unalienable. Recollect, gentlemen, your own maxims; you have declared that the principles of sovereignty reside in the nation, but you have not shewn on what this principle is founded; it is on the individual and primitive right of man. Nations are free and independent, because they are composed of men whom nature has rendered free and independent. No contract, no prescription

can deprive nations of their sovereignty; because this, having the natural liberty of man for its basis, is as unalienable as liberty itself. It is, then, a law of nature, that no man has a right to alienate his liberty, much less can alienate his own life. He may unquestionably dispose of his acquired properties, they are his. Life and liberty are not his acquired property, are not himself, but those are. Man, by submitting to a social compact, places his natural property under the protection of society. It is to preserve, not to destroy, that he seeks the advantages of the law. It is a deposit, not an *alienation*. Wherefore have legislators thought themselves intitled to pass sentence on a suicide, if it be not on the maxim, that no man has a right to dispose of his own life? Yet this right, which is not found in the individual, they imagine to exist in the community, without reflecting that no right can belong to a community, which was not originally enjoyed by the individual. The power of the sovereign to dispose of the life of any one, in certain cases, could only be founded on a law in which all have acquiesced; but since no man can dispose of his own life, he cannot acquiesce in such a law, and without this consent, what power has the sovereign to enact it?

The above argument appears to militate against the punishment of imprisonment; and our author contends against the right to inflict perpetual imprisonment for any crime. He concludes, from the above principles, that the punishment of death ought not to be inflicted; that no punishment should be perpetual; and that no indelible mark of infamy ought to be inflicted.

GUIDE DES JEUNES GENS; or a Guide to Youth on their Entrance into Life, &c. By M. de Retz. 2 vol. 12mo. Paris.

BOOKS for youth are certainly highly valuable, especially such as tend to form their judgement, and improve their taste. The plan of the present work is to give a series of disquisitions on subjects which the author judges to be well calculated to promote his design. These are given in an alphabetical arrangement, with ref-

references. The subjects are Actions, Age, Amé, Amitié, Amour, &c. Of the latter we shall give a translation, which will shew our readers a good specimen of the work.

Amour, Love. What is termed love in the present day, is an ardent desire, which assumes the name of a *tender sentiment*. It is an honourable passion, it is the seducing error of the young, the serious occupation of women, the wreck of men, the regret of the aged, and the real secret of Nature to perpetuate her works.

Noble and well-formed minds are alone susceptible of a pure, disinterested, elevated passion. To love a beautiful and virtuous woman, requires a taste for what is beautiful and honourable. To please her we must resemble her. A lover is not courageous, sensible, humane, generous, because he loves; he loves because these qualities are innate; and it is with the want of these qualities that men seduce the female who has not a sufficient degree of patience to put them to the trial.

Genuine affection is the lot of a few. It requires too many qualities to be general. It demands too much constancy for the volatile, too much ardour for the fickle, too much restraint for the turbulent, too much delicacy for the simple, too much enthusiasm for the cold and icy, too much activity for the indolent, too much desire for the philosopher, too much self-denial for the libertine.

Genuine love demands a considerable degree of elevation and energy of soul: generosity, sensibility, and rectitude of heart; a warm imagination and inviolate attachment to the principles of virtue and honour. It cannot exist in the bosom of luxury and pleasures, in the midst of tumult, and the distractions of numerous and polite assemblies. It requires simplicity of manners, and retired life.

In times of happier manners, when the sex was adored by the men, they respected themselves, and endeavoured to render themselves worthy of the religious homage that was paid to them. Their esteem was the recompence of courage and virtue. The desire of pleasing them exalted the imagination, and was productive of heroes; but voluptuousness and sensuality have degraded us. We are no longer gallant; we are depraved. Since they are no longer considered as divinities, the sex

is become too *human*, their influence on the character of men is now as pernicious as it was formerly beneficial. To soft illusions, to the enthusiasms of love, succeed facility of enjoyment, followed by quick disgust. Philosophy and debauchery take place of that heroic gallantry which constituted love and virtue.

Formerly, as it was more difficult to please one woman, than it is now to seduce many, the reign of moral affection prolonged the power of passion. By restraining, directing, and fanning the passion with delusive hopes, desires were perpetuated, while they preserved their force. Love could not be *made*, it was an impulse; it was even the child of innocence, and was nourished by the sacrifices which it made, instead of being extinguished by voluptuous gratifications.

True love mingles *respect* with the passion. If it was placed on mental qualities alone, the senser would be without energy; if placed solely on the charms of person, the head would be vacant; a genuine lover is equally struck with the virtues and with the attractions of his mistress.

If we be deprived of love, what remains? For libertines, there is gallantry, its perpetual counterfeit; to the honest and feeling heart, tenderness; to all the pleasure of friendship, less voluptuous than the pleasures of love, but mingled with fewer pains. It is too generally thought, that illicit amour may be pursued by a young man, without any pernicious consequences; but this is a fatal error. To what misfortunes does not criminal indulgence expose your youth? Remorse, shame, the loss of the esteem, not merely of the virtuous, but even of the vile accomplices of his pleasures, plunge his existence into a sea of sorrows.

A woman who has yielded to the impulse of desire, seeks in vain to be indifferent to her situation, or to vindicate her errors to herself. In vain she attempts to believe that there are some passions which it is not in the power of human nature to conquer; in vain she seeks to efface the idea of criminality, by the perpetuity of her passion, by its excess, &c. Every one that falls a victim to the pallion, has a disordered imagination, which sometimes represents the folly committed as a *virtue*, and the repentance which it occasions as a *duty*. Alas! less exertion is required to subdue the criminal passion, than is often employed to keep it alive.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

A HISTORICAL DISCUSSION CONCERNING THE KNOWLEDGE WHICH THE ANCIENTS HAD OF INDIA, AND THE PROGRESS OF THE TRADE WITH THAT COUNTRY, PRIOR TO THE DISCOVERY OF THE PASSAGE TO IT BY THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE; with an Appendix, containing Observations on the Civil Policy, the Laws, and Judicial Proceedings, the Arts, the Sciences, and the Religious Institutions of the Indians. By William Robertson, D. D. F. R. S. Edin. Principal of the University, and Historiographer to his Majesty for Scotland. 4to. pp. 364. Cadell.

In the preface Dr. Robertson informs us, that the perusal of Major Rennell's memoir for illustrating his map of Indostan, gave rise to this work, which he designed originally for his own amusement only. But in pursuing it, some facts occurred, which had been hitherto unobserved; and he at length imagined that the result of his researches might prove instructing to others.

The author has divided his work into four sections, in which he treats—

Section I. Of the intercourse with India from the earliest times, until the conquest of Egypt by the Romans.

Section II. Intercourse with India from the establishment of the Roman dominion in Egypt, to the conquest of that kingdom by the Mahomedans.

Section III. Intercourse from that conquest to the discovery of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope.

Section IV. contains general observations. After which we have an appendix.

In the first section, the doctor has not, we think, brought to light any new discovery respecting the ancient intercourse with India. He agrees with Mr. Bruce, that the fleets of Solomon did not sail to any part

of that country. The Phoenicians and Egyptians, by means of the Arabian Gulf, formed the first connexions with India; but little was known to the Europeans of that country till Alexander undertook his expedition thither, of which we have a very excellent account in the history of Arian, compiled from the memoirs of some of the principal officers. Dr. Robertson observes, that it was likewise from the memoirs of the same officers that Europe derived its first authentic information concerning the climate, the soil, the productions, and the inhabitants of India, and in a country where the manners, the customs, and even the dress of the people, are almost as permanent and invariable as the face of nature itself, it is wonderful how exactly the descriptions given by Alexander's officers delineate what we now behold in India, at the distance of two thousand years. The stated change of seasons, now known by the name of monsoons; the periodical rains; the swelling of the rivers; the inundations which these occasion; the appearance of the country during their continuance, are particularly mentioned and described.

No less accurate are the descriptions which they have given of the inhabitants; their black, uncurled hair; their garments of cotton; their living entirely upon vegetable food; their division into separate tribes, or *caste*s, the members of which never intermarry; the custom of wives burning themselves with their deceased husbands, and many other particulars, in all which they perfectly resemble the modern Hindoo.

From the time of Alexander to the close of the fifteenth century, a period of more than sixteen hundred years, all schemes of conquest in India seem to have been relinquished; and nothing was aimed at by any nation but to procure an intercourse of trade, and it was by means of Egypt that this intercourse was established.

By the monopoly of this commerce by sea, Egypt arose to an extraordinary degree of opulence and power.

In the second section our author proceeds to discuss the connection of the Romans with India, and the vast improvement which was made during this period in this voyage.

While the merchants of Egypt and Syria exerted their activity in order to supply the increasing demands of Rome for Indian commodities, and vied with each other in their efforts, the eagerness of gain (as Pliny observes) brought India itself nearer to the rest of the world. In the course of their voyages to that country, the Greek and Egyptian pilots could not fail to observe the regular shifting of the periodical winds or monsoons, and how readily they continued to blow during one part of the year from the East, and during the other from the West. Encouraged by attending to this circumstance, Hippalus, the commander of a ship engaged in the Indian trade, ventured, about fourscore years after Egypt was annexed to the Roman empire, to relinquish the slow and circuitous course which I have described; and, stretching boldly from the mouth of the Arabian Gulf across the ocean, was carried by the western monsoon to Muziris, a harbour in that part of India, now known by the name of the Malabar coast.

This route to India was held to be a discovery of such importance, that, in order to perpetuate the memory of the inventor, the name of Hippalus was given to the wind which enabled him to perform the voyage. As this was one of the greatest efforts of navigation in the ancient world, and opened the best communication by sea between the east and west that was known for fourteen hundred years, it merits a particular description. Fortunately Pliny has enabled us to give it with a degree of accuracy, which can seldom be attained in tracing the naval or commercial operations of the ancients. From Alexandria (he observes) to Juliopolis is two miles; there the cargo, destined for India is embarked on the Nile, and is carried to Coptos, which is distant three hundred and three miles; and the voyage is usually accomplished in twelve days.—From Coptos goods are conveyed to Berenice, on the Arabian Gulf, halting at different stations, regulated according to the convenience of watering. The distance between these cities is two hundred and fifty-eight miles. On account of the heat, the caravan travels only during the night, and the journey is finished on the twelfth day. From

Berenice ships take their departure about Midsummer, and in thirty days reach Ocelis (Gel'a) at the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, or cane, (Cape Farataque) on the coast of Arabia Felix. Thence they sail in forty days to Muziris, the first emporium in India. They begin their voyage homeward early in the Egyptian month Thibi, which answers to our December; they sail with a north-east wind; and when they enter the Arabian Gulf, meet with a south or south-west wind, and thus complete the voyage in less than a year.

He next enters into the particular articles of this commerce, which was necessarily confined to those of the greatest value, and least bulk. In this detail we have many curious particulars respecting this trade.

Having dispatched the subject of trade, Dr. Robertson proceeds to enquire into the knowledge obtained of India by the ancient navigators and travellers, and concludes his researches on this subject with these remarks:

These observations induce me to adhere to an opinion which I proposed in another place—that the Greeks and Romans, in their commercial intercourse with India, were seldom led, either by curiosity, or the love of gain, to visit the more eastern parts of it. A variety of particulars occur to confirm this opinion. Though Ptolemy bestows the appellation of Emporia on several places situated on the coast, which stretches from the eastern mouth of the Ganges to the extremity of the Golden Chersonesus, it is uncertain, as I formerly observed, whether, from his having given them this name, we are to consider them as harbours, frequented by ships from Egypt, or merely by vessels of the country. Beyond the Golden Chersonesus, it is remarkable that he mentions one emporium only, which plainly indicates the intercourse with the region of India to have been very inconsiderable. Had voyages from the Arabian Gulf to those countries of India been so frequent, as to have entitled Ptolemy to specify so minutely the longitude and latitude of the great number of places which he mentions, he must, in consequence of this, have acquired such information as would have prevented several great errors into which he has fallen.—Had it been usual to double Cape Comorin, and to sail up the Bay of Bengal to the mouth of the Ganges, some of the ancient geographers would not have been so uncertain, and others so widely mistaken, with respect to the situation and

magnitude of the island of Ceylon. If the merchants of Alexandria had often visited the ports of the Golden Chersonesus, and of the great bay, Ptolemy's description of them must have been rendered more correspondent to their real form; nor could he have believed several places to lie beyond the line, which are in truth some degrees on this side of it. But, though the navigation of the ancients may not have extended to the farther India, we are certain that various commodities of that country were imported into Egypt, and thence were conveyed to Rome, and to other parts of the empire. From circumstances which I have already enumerated, we are warranted in concluding, that these were brought in vessels of the country to Musiris, and to the other ports on the Malabar coast, which were at that period the staples of trade with Egypt. In a country of such extent as India, where the natural productions are various, and greatly diversified by art and industry, an active domestic commerce might have taken place.

The conquest of Egypt by the Mohamedans, excluded the Greeks from all intercourse with India by way of Alexandria; and the Arabians, from impetuous warriors, became enterprising merchants. In a short time they advanced far beyond the boundaries of the ancient navigation; and soon after their conquest of Persia, they built Bussora, which soon became a place of trade little inferior to Alexandria.

Dr. Robertson afterwards goes on to detail the rise of the Venetians and Genoese, and their acquisition of the Indian trade by way of Alexandria; the Crusades, and the consequence of them; the knowledge of India which was diffused over Europe by means of travellers; and the passage of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese, with which he closes his third section.

The fourth contains a variety of judicious observations on the facts which have been mentioned in the former part, and towards the conclusion he observes—

It is to the discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, and to the vigour and success with which the Portuguese prosecuted their conquests and established their dominion there, that Europe

has been indebted for its preserving from the most illiberal and humiliating subjugation that ever oppressed polished nations. For this observation I am indebted to an author, whose ingenuity has illustrated, and whose eloquence has adorned, the history of the settlements and commerce of modern nations in the East and West Indies: and it appears to me to be well founded, as to merit more ample investigation. A few years after the first appearance of the Portuguese in India, the dominion of the Mameluks was overthrown by the irresistible power of the Turkish arms; and Egypt and Syria were annexed as provinces to their empire. If after this event the commercial intercourse with India had continued to be carried on in its ancient channels, the Turkish sultans, by being masters of Egypt and Syria, might have possessed the absolute command of it, whether the productions of the East were conveyed by the Red Sea to Alexandria, or were transported by land carriage from the Persian Gulf to Constantinople, and the ports of the Mediterranean.

The monarchs who were then at the head of this great empire, were neither destitute of abilities to perceive the pre-eminence to which this world had elevated them, nor of ambition to aspire to it. Selim, the conqueror of the Mameluks, by confirming the ancient privilege of the Venetians in Egypt and Syria, and by his regulations concerning the duties on Indian goods, which I have already mentioned, early discovered his solicitude to secure all the advantages of commerce with the East to his own dominions. The attention of Solyman the Magnificent, his successor, seems to have been equally directed towards the same object. More enlightened than any monarch of the Ottoman race, he attended to all the transactions of the European states, and had observed the power as well as opulence to which the republic of Venice had attained by engrossing the commerce with the East. He now beheld Portugal rising towards the same elevation, by the same means.—Eager to imitate and to supplant them, he formed a scheme suitable to his character for political wisdom, and the appellation of *Institutor of Rules*, by which the Turkish historians have distinguished him; and established, early in his reign, a system of commercial laws in his dominions, by which he hoped to render Constantinople the great staple of Indian trade, as it had been in the prosperous ages of the Greek empire. For accomplishing this scheme, however, he did not rely on the operation of laws alone; he fitted out about the same time a formidable fleet in the Red Sea, under the conduct of a confidential officer, with such a body of jenízaries on board of it as he deemed suffi-

cient to out of but to station standard of splendour crowned in compell Turkish ignominy they have molted expedition Solyman the the remains of arduous never heard of it w

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cient not only to drive the Portuguese out of all their new settlements in India, but to take possession of some commodious station in that country, and to erect his standard there. The Portuguese, by efforts of valour and constancy, entitled to the splendid success with which they were crowned, repulsed this powerful armament in every enterprise it undertook, and compelled the shattered remains of the Turkish fleet and army to return with ignominy to the harbours from which they had taken their departure, with the most sanguine hopes of terminating the expedition in a very different manner. Solyman, though he never relinquished the design of expelling the Portuguese from India, and of acquiring some establishment there, was so occupied during the remainder of his reign by the multiplicity of arduous operations, in which an insatiable ambition involved him, that he never had leisure to resume the prosecution of it with vigour.

The author has added to his work a great variety of notes and illustrations; and has, in an appendix, introduced several observations on the genius, manners, and institutions of the people of India. Here it is not possible to do our author the justice he deserves by any analysis. We shall endeavour to give our readers an idea of this part by the following extract:

From the most ancient accounts of India we learn, that the distinction of ranks and separation of professions were completely established there. This is one of the most undoubted proofs of a society considerably advanced in its progress. Arts, in the early stages of social life, are so few and so simple, that each man is sufficiently master of them all, to gratify every demand of his own limited desires. A savage can form his bow, point his arrows, rear his hut, and hollow his canoe, without calling in the aid of any hand more skilful than his own. But when time has augmented the wants of men, the productions of art become so complicated in their structure, or so curious in their fabric, that a particular course of education is requisite towards forming the artist to ingenuity in contrivance, and experts in execution. In proportion as refinement spreads, the distinction of professions increases, and they branch out into more numerous and minute subdivisions. Prior to the records of authentic history, and even before the most remote era to which their own traditions pretend to reach, this separation of professions

had not only taken place among the natives of India, but the perpetuity of it was secured by an institution which must be considered as the fundamental article in the system of their policy. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or casta. The members of the first, deemed the most sacred, had for their province to study the principles of religion, to perform its functions, and to cultivate the sciences: they were the priests, the instructors, and philosophers of the nation. The members of the second order were entrusted with the government and defence of the state: in peace they were its rulers and magistrates; in war they were the soldiers who fought its battles. The third was composed of husbandmen and merchants; and the fourth of artisans, labourers, and servants. None of them can ever quit his own casta, or be admitted into another. The station of every individual is unalterably fixed; his destiny is irrevocable; and the walk of life is marked out, from which he must never deviate. This line of separation is not only established by civil authority, but confirmed and sanctioned by religion; and each order or casta is said to have proceeded from the Divinity, in such a different manner, that to mingle and confound them would be deemed an act of most daring impiety. Nor is it between the four different tribes alone that such insuperable barriers are fixed. The members of each casta adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life.

Such arbitrary arrangements of the various members which compose a community, seem at first view to be adverse to improvement either in science or in arts; and by forming around the different orders of men artificial barriers, which it would be impious to pass, tends to circumscribe the operations of the human mind within a narrower sphere than nature has allotted to them. When every man is at full liberty to direct his efforts towards those objects and that end which the impulse of his own mind prompts him to prefer, he may be expected to attain that high degree of eminence to which the uncontroled exertions of genius and industry naturally conduct. The regulations of Indian policy, with respect to the different orders of men, must necessarily at some times check genius in its career, and confine to the functions of an inferior casta talents fitted to shine in a higher sphere. But the arrangements of civil government are made, not for what is extraordinary, but for what is common; not for the few, but for the many. The object of the first Indian legislators was to employ the most effectual means of providing for the subsistence

sistence, the security and happiness of all the members of the community over which they presided. With this view they set apart certain races of men for each of the various professions and arts necessary in a well-ordered society; and appointed the exercise of them to be transmitted from father to son in succession. This system, though extremely repugnant to the ideas which we, by being placed in a very different state of society, have formed, will be found, upon attentive inspection, better adapted to attain the end in view, than a careless observer is, on a first view, apt to imagine. The human mind bends to the law of necessity, and is accustomed not only to accommodate itself to the restraints which the condition of its nature, or the institutions of its country, impose, but to acquiesce in them. From his entrance into life, an Indian knows the station allotted to him, and the function to which he is destined by his birth. The objects which relate to these, are the first that present themselves to his view. They occupy his thoughts, or employ his hands: and from his earliest years he is trained to the habit of doing with ease and pleasure, that which he must continue through life to do. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce, of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes, attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into castes, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India; the permanence of its institution, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is likely still to continue; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alteration.—The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated.—

Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same. Gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present time, it has been always considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns. According to the accounts which I have given of the cargo anciently imported from India, they appear to have consisted of nearly the same articles with those of the investments in our times; and whatever difference we may observe in them, seems to have arisen not so much from any diversity in the nature of the commodities which the Indians prepared for sale, as from a variety in the tastes or in the wants of the nation which demanded them.

This ingenious work is ornamented with two charts of India, drawn under the direction of Mr. Playfair.

A REVIEW OF THE CONSTITUTION OF GREAT-BRITAIN; being the Substance of a Speech delivered in a Numerous Assembly, on the following Question: "Is the Petition of Mr. Horne Tooke a Libel on the House of Commons, or a just Statement of public Grievances, arising from an unfair Representation of the People?" 8vo. 5s. Ridgeway.

WHEN the fallacious representations of Blackstone and De Lolme, respecting the English constitution have lulled the people of this country into an unaccountable supineness, and have taught them to regard as a perfect constitution, what is in fact only a stale engine of fraud and corruption, the public are under great obligations to every one who employs the arms of truth and reason to undeceive them. Among these patriots is the author of the present speech, who has happily succeeded in helping to remove the film from the eyes of his fellow citizens.

Mr. Tooke's petition, he ironically says, he considers as a daring libel, "for it is truth itself." He then proceeds to examine that gentleman's

complaint respecting the representation of the people, and justly observes that

Representation presupposes election; for no man can justly act for another, except he has been chosen and deputed by him for that purpose. This proposition seems of itself so very clear, as to stand in need of no farther illustration: However, to set the matter in the clearest point of view, let us suppose that a man should take upon himself to manage the affairs of a person by whom he was not appointed; that he should collect his rents, distribute his property, and even levy a tax on the produce of his personal labour; would you view such a man in the light of a lawful agent? or would you regard him as a robber and a thief, who had invaded, under a false pretence, the property of another?

But the Representatives of the People are the Agents of the Public; they manage the common flock, and this common flock consists of the collective wealth of all the individuals. Every individual therefore should have a voice in the appointment of the common agents of all. No, say some, with an air of triumph, Those only should have a right to vote, who are men of property. But pray is there any man without property? Is not the daily labour of the peasant, or the mechanic, as much his property, and as precious to him, as the wide possessions or funded wealth of the landholder, or man of money? Is not the poor man, whose very existence depends on the wisdom or folly of administration, at least as much interested in the right management of government, as he whose superfluities alone are endangered by its imprudence?

And again,

We may, therefore, I think, without presumption, assume it as a principle in a free state, *first*, That every man shall be actually represented.

Secondly, That all the members of the state shall have an *equal* vote in the election of their representatives; for, the man that has not a vote, is not represented at all: and if any man is permitted to have more than one vote, then the people are not fairly represented.

And now, where shall we find the representatives of the people of England? In the Parliament no doubt. But the Parliament consists of three powers; the King, the Lords, and the Commons. Does the King represent the people? The King, I

reply, is indeed appointed to enforce the laws, but not deputed to enact them.

Are the people represented by the Lords? No, certainly; for the Lords are not elected by the people. They are the mere creatures of the Crown, and a part of that regal pageantry, to support which, the people are so shamefully taxed, and so cruelly curtailed of the comforts, and even of the necessaries of life. The Lords, in short, are a privileged tribe of men, totally distinct from the people. A Peer is a sort of political monster, who is born a law-giver, sucks from his nurse's breast the wisdom of legislation, and comes into Parliament to represent himself. If he represents any body whatever, it must be those Danish, Saxon, or Norman pirates, who, at different periods, invaded this country, pillaged and reduced to slavery the natives, and having acquired a larger share of booty than their brother Buccaneers, became Barons, and trampled with the foot of pride on the neck of the humbled inhabitants. Whether our most noble lords, dukes, earls, &c. have much reason to boast the honour of representing those vagabond robbers of antiquity, I shall not pretend to decide; but certainly this is the only representation to which they have any reasonable claim.

The aristocracy of this country, and, indeed, of every other, he shews to be baneful; and then proceeds,

Since it clearly appears that the people are not represented either by the King or the House of Lords, let us next examine whether or not they are represented by the House of Commons. In the first place, then, the House of Commons are chosen by a number of electors, not exceeding, at a very extravagant calculation, an hundredth part of the people of Great Britain. At best, therefore, the House of Commons can represent *only* an aristocracy consisting of an hundredth part of the people.

But even this domineering aristocracy are not fairly represented by the House of Commons; for, so unequally is the representation distributed, that in some places half a dozen individuals have the privilege of sending two members to parliament, while in other places this privilege is diluted among 50 or 100,000 electors. From this farcical mode of election, it is easy to conceive by what means the whole representation of this country has fallen into the hands of a few great families, and that seats in the House of Commons, as Mr. Horne Tooke observes, are bought and sold like stalls for cattle at a fair.

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But even this phantom of election is rendered still more illusive by the limitations prescribed to the choice of the small portion of electors who have in this country the right of voting.—I mean that regulation of Parliament which narrows the choice of the electors to a certain circle of the aristocracy, consisting of men possessed of at least three hundred pounds *per annum*; (though in fact an income much more considerable is required to obtain admission into that Assembly.) Now, to say nothing of the scandalous immorality of this regulation, which degrades and stigmatizes that state of poverty which is often the portion of liberal and honest minds; for I will not say, that, to hoard up wealth, and to retain at the same time the fund of probity undiminished, is a thing impossible; but to the experience, and to the conscience of this Assembly, I appeal, whether it be not a thing extremely difficult indeed *:—but not, I say, to insist on the scandalous immorality of a regulation which stigmatizes an honourable state of poverty, and which, by holding up to our view wealth as the criterion of worth, debauches the people, and impoisons the public mind with a false opinion of the excellence of riches, an opinion that is the source of almost every vice and every crime that disturbs the peace of society; without, I say, insisting at present on this important point, I cannot help remarking, and remarking with indignation, the shameless injustice, the execrable cruelty of an act which thus compels the people to resign the care of their dearest concerns into the hands of the very persons who profit by their misery, and who fatten on their distress. Are the flock to be defended by wolves? Are the monopolizers of land, the monopolizers of money, the monopolizers of traffic, the proper representatives of a people, who are crushed, oppressed, and even famished by the monopolies of money, of traffic, and of land?

From this view, he justly concludes, that the people of this country have no representation whatever.

Next he proceeds to contrast the situation of the people in Turkey and in England. In the former, for three or four day's labour, a man can maintain his wives and family. In England, six days incessant labour will scarcely enable him to support them.

After dwelling on this for some time, he attacks the point of the Eng-

lish constitution which regards the non-responsibility of the chief magistrate. Here our author's own words shall speak for him:

Either the King is possessed of power necessary to the conduct of government, or he is not: if the latter, is it not cruel and unjust to extort from the nation the enormous sum of a million and a half per annum for the maintenance of a mere peasant, not in the least necessary to the conduct of public affairs? But if he be really possessed of great powers (as most certainly he is), why, in the name of common sense, should the Chief Magistrate, whose errors of course must be more pernicious than those of the subordinate officers of the executive power; why, I say, should he be exempted from that responsibility to which they very justly must submit? The King, you say, can do as wrong. Cannot the King make war? Has he not solely a power over the throats of the people?—Yes; but the House of Commons hold the purse, and may refuse the supplies.—But what avails the privilege of holding the public purse (were it even held with integrity), if the Minister can at any time commit the honour of the nation? if, by foreign treaties, by intrigues, by cabal, by unprovoked hostilities, he can draw down upon you the vengeance of half the globe, and reduce you to the cruel necessity of defending against half the world, your possessions, your independence, and even your existence?

Strange infatuation! a dirty canal cannot without the concurrence of Parliament, be carried across a few acres of land; but the Minister may open, when he pleases, the veins of the people, and bid the blood of the citizens flow through every quarter of the globe!—Should the reason of your Chief Magistrate suffer an eclipse, and the royal maniac should begin to sport a little too roughly with the maids of honour, and to kick the titled lacquies about his court, it would be thought necessary to put him in a strait jacket—but why, ye deluded nation! are his arms unconfin'd, when urged by ten-fold frenzy, he unfurls the bloody banner of strife, lets loose the hounds of havoc, and whirling furious in his hand the firebrand of war, involves in ruin and destruction half the habitable globe?

Our limits will not permit us to make further extracts, we shall, therefore only insert his conclusion.

* For it is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God.

Let us now try, by these criteria of good government, the constitution of Great-Britain. In the first place, we have no democracy; for the people, as we have already seen, are not represented. In the second place, we have no aristocracy or pre-eminence of the best; for the governors of the nation are the children of chance, and not the choice of the people. In the third place, the British constitution is not monarchical; for the government is committed, not to the guidance of one will, but to the contention of several. In its best theory, it is the warfare of three wills, but in substance and fact, IT IS THE CONJURATED TREASON OF THREE PARTS AGAINST THE WILL OF THE WHOLE.

Since, therefore, it is, clearly demonstrated, that the Constitution, as it is called, of Great Britain is neither monarchy, aristocracy, nor democracy? What is it then? IT IS OLIGARCHY, OCHLAR-EMY, TYRANNY, CORRUPTION, ANARCHY!

To this constitution, therefore, what hinders us from saying, in the words of the inspired writer, "Thou art weighed in the balance, and art found wanting."

Our duty to the public compels us to advise the perusal of this pamphlet to every Englishman who has not shut his eyes against conviction.

A TREATISE ON THE LAW OF AWARDS; by Stewart Kyd, Esq. Barrister at Law, of the Middle Temple. Crowder.

THE great importance and unavoidable intricacy of mercantile affairs, have rendered a complete and familiar Analysis of the Law of Awards peculiarly necessary. This task, we have the satisfaction to observe, is performed with much professional industry and varied elucidation in the work before us. The author has explained in the most accurate manner the gradual progress and present system of arbitration in this country; shewing the particulars in which our method agrees with the maxims of the Roman law, and pointing out where convenience and custom have caused a difference. These topics are illustrated by judicious quotations from the Pandects of Justinian, and by a review of all the cases

in point that have occurred since the time when our law proceedings were first regularly reported.

The most important parts of the treatise, and in which the author has been very successful, are those on the choice of an umpire, the subject of reference, and the remedy to compel performance; these, and all the other chapters, display a masterly knowledge of the subject; and such is the cultivated genius of the writer, that while expecting merely the elaborate dryness of the legal profession, we are often agreeably entertained with lively remarks, and liberal reflections upon the technical oblitancy that, in a former period, so frequently retarded the equitable administration of justice. There is an intelligent perspicuity in the whole of this work that will make it understood by the most confined capacity; and at the same time an elevation of thought that affords much rational pleasure; for though it is a favourite opinion with many that law books are always crude compilations, tedious to the professional reader, and disgusting to those who are fond of entertainment, yet the present publication (like the admirable Commentaries of Blackstone) evinces that the spirit of philosophy can animate the dead letter of the law. Mr. Kyd's abilities have been already made known to the public*, we have therefore only to add, that this treatise confirms our opinion of his talents, and to recommend to general notice a work that, while it will explain many legal difficulties to the student, is necessary for the use of every person in any degree connected with trade or commerce.

AN ESSAY ON VITAL SUSPENSION; being an Attempt to investigate and ascertain those Diseases in which the Principles of Life are apparently extinguished. By a Medical Practitioner. Rivingtons.

IT is much to the honor of the present age that it has beheld and pa-

* By a Treatise on the Law of Bills of Exchange.

tronized the most noble improvement in the medical science, that of expanding, with resuscitating power through the human frame, the latent sparks of vital animation. The author of this little treatise is a respectable scholar, and appears to have been very attentive to the direct and analogous cases which, in the course of practice, have been presented to his observation; and he accurately states the opinions of the most celebrated physical writers on the subject of apparent death. Every physician, ancient or modern, who has directed his labours to this point, passes under the review of our author; he acutely discovers and judiciously corrects the mistakes of many medical illustrators, whose works are of the greatest eminence; which affords a proof that errors, however sanctified by collateral judgment and popular opinion, cannot escape the detection of an enlightened and enquiring mind. Beside a statement of the different modes by which the grand effect of resuscitation is produced, the author advances some ingenious opinions and valuable remarks upon the bold and astonishing doctrine of transfusion. The progress of mankind has been so great in every kind of science, that we are now witness to consequences of human skill, that formerly would not have been believed to proceed from any other cause than miraculous interposition; and what ancient poetry has fabled of the wonderful effects that sprung from the necromantic art of a Medea, is in our days accomplished by an indefatigable spirit of discovery, and a surprising success of experiment. We warmly recommend this small treatise to the attention of the faculty in general; it contains more than many a volume that has been written on the subject of medicine. We also highly approve of the judgment the author discovers in dedicating his performance to such a worthy character and skilful physician as Dr. Hawes, whose unwearied and successful exertions, in preserving the lives of his fellow-

creatures, demand a tribute of applause greater than we are capable of bestowing.

MEMOIRS OF THE LATE REV. JOHN WESLEY, A. M. with a View of his Life and Writings; and a History of Methodism, from its Commencement in 1729 to the present Time. By John Hampson, A. B. 3 vol. 12mo. Sunderland. 1791.

WE confess we did not expect to see the life of John Wesley appear so soon after his death, free from prejudice on the one hand, or enthusiasm on the other. Mr. Hampson has happily steered between these two extremes; and neither hides nor endeavors to hide, his hero's faults, nor descants on them with any degree of severity. The early appearance of the work, he informs us, was occasioned by a determination to have published it even during Mr. Wesley's life; and great part of it was written at the time of his decease.

Mr. Wesley's grandfather, we are told, was a minister among the non-conformists, in the reign of Charles II. His father was a minister of the Church of England; and his brethren Samuel and Charles both took orders. A good portion of the first volume of this work is taken up with accounts of Mr. Wesley's family. Our author next proceeds to inform us that Mr. John Wesley was the second son, born in 1703, sent early to the Charterhouse, and thence to Christ Church, where he was elected fellow of Lincoln in 1724, and took his degree of A. M. in 1726. Soon after his election to Lincoln, he became more serious than usual. He entered into holy orders in 1725, and continued at Oxford till 1735, having several pupils, and officiating as Greek lecturer; his pupils he kept under a very severe discipline. In 1729 he formed a little society at Oxford, consisting of himself, his brother Charles, and two others, which afterwards increased. He ascribed his first religious impres-

fions to Bishop Taylor's Rules for Living and Dying. From this and other books he began, he says, to alter "the form of his conversation, and to set out in earnest upon a new life." This society were the first beginners of methodism; they met, preached, prayed, visited the sick, and distributed alms: and their meetings, had they stopped here, might have been attended with advantage. Their meetings and reserved behaviour soon procured them the titles of *Methodists, Sacramentarians, and the Godly Club.*

These meetings, as I have said, might have been attended with advantage; but scarcely at Oxford, where religion is the trade, and hypocrisy the staple commodity: and as these actions were there looked on as tricks of the trade, the members of the club were heartily laughed at by the young, and opposed by the old. "It was reported the college censors were going to blow up the Godly Club;" but our heroes meeting with encouragement from other quarters, they determined to proceed.

While Mr. W. was proceeding in this course, his father's declining health required an assistant, and he pressed him much to leave the University and come to him: but John, having other things in view, refused. This could not arise from an affection to the University; for in 1735 he embarked, in company with some others of the same way of thinking, for Georgia; thus sacrificing to enthusiasm what he had denied to the solicitations of a venerable parent. On the voyage, their method of passing their time was singular, and shall be given in his own words.

We now began to be a little regular. From four in the morning till five, each of us used private prayer. From five to seven we read the Bible together, carefully comparing it (that we might not lean to our own understanding) with the writings of the earliest ages. At seven we breakfasted; at eight were the public prayers. From nine to twelve, learnt the languages, and instructed the children. At twelve we met, to give an account to one another

what we had done since our last meeting, and what we designed to do before our next. At one we dined. The time from dinner to four we spent in reading to those, of whom each of us had taken charge, or in speaking to them severally, as need required. At four were the evening prayers; when either the second lesson was explained (as it always was in the morning), or the children were catechised and instructed before the congregation. From five to six we again used private prayer. From six to seven I read in our cabin to two or three of the passengers, of whom there were about eighty English on board, and each of my brethren to a few more in theirs. At seven I joined with the Germans in their public service; while Mr. Ingham was reading between the decks to as many as desired to hear. At eight we met again, to instruct and exhort one another. Between nine and ten we went to bed, where neither the roaring of the sea, nor the motion of the ship, could take away the refreshing sleep which God gave us.

He laboured for some time in the American vineyard, with as great success; and after he came back went to Hernhuth and Marienburg, in Germany, where he imbibed some notions from the Moravians.

John Wesley having again returned to England, began to exhort and preach at Newgate, and in different parts of London, and in several places in the country, where he made a great multitude of converts, and established many societies.

Whether followed or despised, persecuted or applauded, says our author, he never lost sight of his object, nor for a moment ceased to labour with the spirit of a Luther, and the gravity and authority of an apostle. His own opinion of the undertaking he was engaged in was as great as that of his antagonists was contemptuous.

Indeed, contempt or ridicule could make no impression on him or his followers; for when pursued by either, they considered it as suffering in the cause of their Saviour, and fought, rather than fled from them. Mr. Wesley's original plan was to form an union of clergymen; but this he found impracticable; they did not chuse to acknowledge him as their head; and he, equally meek with them,

them, like our *modest minister* Mr. P. would take no subordinate part.

As his brethren of the cloth would not join him, he had recourse to the assistance of lay preachers: in these he did not think learning or examination necessary. As such a conduct could not fail to injure him in the opinion of the clergy, the doots of all the churches were shut against him, and he took to preaching in houses and fields. In the latter places he was preceded, by one day only, by the celebrated Mr. George Whitfield. However, he soon got establishments in many parts of the kingdom; and in 1790 had formed twenty-nine circuits, and employed sixty-seven itinerant preachers.

In England the mob distinguished the new society by the name of *swaddlers*. Mr. Wesley visited Ireland, and was pleased with his reception: but in Scotland he made no great progress; they had *canting* enough before. On his return to England, we are sorry to say, the society "endured persecution in all its forms," and every injurious report was spread against our apostle. Riots ensued; and some of the magistrates shamefully encouraged these enormities. Nor was there a magistrate who had spirit sufficient to do his duty, till directed by a royal mandate.

Mr. Hampson gives a long account of the death of Mr. Wesley's mother; he deplored the extravagance of her sons, John and Charles. His brother Samuel also by no means approved of many of his tenets: momentary conversions, and assurance of redemption, are among the chief of these. Of the former our author speaks at large; and gives the following letter from Mr. Cennick, one of his disciples, which is worthy attention:

On Monday evening I was preaching at the school on the forgiveness of sins, when two persons, who the night before had laughed at others, cried out with a loud and bitter cry; so did many more, in a little time. Indeed it seemed that the devil, and much of the powers of darkness were come among us. My mouth was flopped, and my ears heard scarce

anything but such terrifying cries as would have made any one's knees tremble. Only judge. It was pitch dark; it rained much; and the wind blew vehemently. Large flashes of lightning, and loud claps of thunder, mixed with the screams of frightened parents, and the exclamations of nine distressed souls! The hurry and confusion caused hereby cannot be expressed. The whole place seemed to me to resemble nothing but the habitation of apostate spirits; many raving up and down, crying. "The devil will have me! I am his servant! I am damned! my sins can never be pardoned! I am gone for ever!" A young man, in such horrors that seven or eight could not hold him, still roaring like a dragon, "Ten thousand devils, millions, millions of devils are about me!" This continued three-hours. One cried out, "that fearful thunder is raised by the devil; in this storm he will bear me to hell." Some cried out with a hollow voice, "Mr. Cennick! bring Mr. Cennick." I came to all that defied me. They then spurned with all their strength, grinding their teeth, and expressing all the fury that heat can conceive. Indeed, their flaring eyes and swelling faces so amazed others, that they cried out almost as loud as they that were tormented. I have visited several since, who told me their senses were taken away; but when I drew near, they said they felt fresh rage, longing to tear me to pieces.

However, Mr. Hampson says, in his followers increased in knowledge, they decreased in enthusiasm. Mr. Wesley took pains to cement the union between Mr. Whitfield and himself, but it did not take place; for our author ingenuously confesses, that each was too fond of power to share it with another. Soon after Mr. Wesley began to preach celibacy; but fell from his principles, and married. The lady he selected was in every sense an improper match for him; they lived together some time very unhappily, and at last separated.

We have already seen some of Mr. Wesley's *vagaries*; we shall now extract from our author those of some of his disciples.

"Whoever is acquainted with the subject, must have perceived, in the progress of methodism, the operation of a principle which, in every stage, has debased and degraded it; and that is, a frequent tendency to enthusiasm and extravagance.

The instances upon record are too numerous to be particularly noticed. It will be sufficient to distinguish the most remarkable. Among these is the case of George Bell, formerly a sergeant in the guards, who took it into his head to pretend an express revelation, that the last of February 1763 would be the period of the consummation of all things; and by this ridiculous chimera, turned the heads of half the metropolis. Not content with this, he had the impious presumption to pretend to work miracles. Mr. Wesley, who gave too much encouragement to this insolent enthusiast, says that, by his prayers, a young woman was

instantaneously cured of an inveterate complaint in her breast; and, in his usual mode of decision, observes—"1. She was ill. 2. She is well. 3. She was so in a moment. Now, which of these can with any modesty be denied?" As the evidence is not before the public, it is impossible to remark upon it: but, on the other hand, as we conceive miracles to have ceased soon after the apostolic age, we beg leave to say, the report of an individual, or even of half a dozen brain-sick enthusiasts, is not sufficient to establish a principle exploded by the majority, and the wisest of mankind.

(To be continued.)

P O E T R Y.

V E R S E S

BY GEORGE KEATE, ESQ.

To CAPTAIN BLIGH,
ON READING HIS NARRATIVE OF THE
MUTINY ABOARD THE BOUNTY; AND
OF HIS PASSAGE (IN AN OPEN BOAT)
ACROSS THE PACIFIC OCEAN.

THOSE who their dubious tract thro'
oceans urge,
And face the perils of the changeful
main;
Who brave the tempest's howl, and foaming
surge,
(So flow'd GREAT ISRAEL's harp in
plaintive strain.)

Such, GOD OF NATURE, mark thy dread
control,
Curbing, or letting loose the warring
wind;
In terrors bid the waves licentious roll,
Or in a calm their crystal surface bind.

By turns anxiety, fear, hope, dismay,
The mariner's conflicting bosom rend;
Whilst dangers, black with fate, obstruct
his way,
And half his wonted fortitude unbend.

Yet scenes, far more severe, may meet
his eye,
Scenes, over which humanity must weep;
When MUTINY, renouncing ev'ry tie,
Makes man, to man, more hostile than
the deep!

With the fell spirit of the first-born wretch,
Who, "gaint'n a brother, rais'd his mur-
drous hand;
When pow'r usurp'd its rebel arm
dares stretch,
Th' unaided ruler can na more com-
mand!

VOL. VII.

Then ev'ry chain of social life is broke,
Afloat each passion of the alien'd heart;
E'en kindest deeds recall'd but more pro-
voke,
As more the traitor's pain'd by mem'ry's
smart.

Say, GALLANT SAILOR, what were thy
alarms,

When round thy bed the ruffian band
appear'd!
Guilt in each look, binding thy captive
arms,
And led by ONE thy fast'ring hand had
rear'd.

Then turn'd adrift upon the ruthles wave,
Far, far remov'd from ev'ry friendly
shore,
To meet, thro' ling'ring death, a certain
grave,
Or combat horrors scarce conceiv'd be-
fore.

Say, how remembrance pictur'd to thy
view

Those ties of love no distance can efface;
How to thy agonizing fancy drew
Thy widow'd partner, and thy helpless
race!

No—shift the thought, and rather say
what rays

Of HOPE shot round thee by a HAND
DIVINE;
Bade thee thy spirits 'midst the struggle
raise,
And whisper'd PRESERVATION might
be thine:

And thine it WAS!—Beaming from thee
to all
The same bright hope their drooping
strength sustain'd;
The suff'ring that oppres'd could not
appal,
And TIMOR's long-sought coast at last
was gain'd.

X

With

With what sensations did each heart then melt,
The PAST as well as PRESENT seem'd a dream;
Thy mercies, PROVIDENCE, so strongly felt,
As must to life's last moment be their theme!

No stranger thou to toil—for at HIS side,
Whose thirst for glory prob'd the Southern pole;
Thy youth adventur'd, each distress defy'd
Proud on his banner thy own name t'enrol.

O GALLANT SAILOR! urge thy bold career;
If the prophetic muse aright foresee,
Thro' seas untry'd thou still thy course may'st steer,
And what COOK was, hereafter BLIGH may be.

Where cannot BRITAIN's dauntless sails extend?
Go, search out tracks, and nations yet unknown;
*Midst her proud triumphs some fresh laurels blend,
And with thy COUNTRY'S fame augment THINE OWN.

TO THE SILK-WORM.

O Gentle insect! spin thy silken thread,
Whilst yet thou bear'st the caterpillar's name;
The snowy hands of queens adorn'd thy bed,
And rais'd thee to the gaudy silk-worm's fame.

Wind, wind thy yet surviving form around,
Prognostic of thy period drawing near;
A guilty suicide thou must be found,
Nor pitied nor bewail'd by female tear:

Industrious insect! build thy golden tomb,
Richer than those where monarchs close their eyes;
Thy grave is rifled for the artist's loom,
And from thy loins a butterfly must rise.

Confin'd to China first, thy precious feed
Perch'd on the mulberry, sanguineous tree,
The pine, the oak and ash of Europe feed
To swarms diminutive, thy progeny,

Thy webs procur'd a thin transparent guze,
A manufacture of the greatest praise;
A woman claim'd its first and moving cause,
And female charms do still thy merit raise.

First artist of luxurious nation's pride,
Whom grave & Romans censor'd, when array'd,
The cheek of modesty was warp'd aside,
When thou the polish'd turn of limb display'd.
With thy increase the Persian merchant braves

Armenia's plains, and lofty Thibet's hills;
Descends the Indus or the Ganges' waves,
Till western fails the prop'st'rous zephyr fills.

Hertford, Aug. 1, J. MOORE,
1791. Master of the Grammar School.

TO THE MALE VIRGINS.

NO case excites such tender pity
In men of feeling hearts like me,
As when a girl, kind, handsome, witty,
Remains a maid at twenty-three.

While such a crowd of love-sick lasses
Around the world so wanton walk,
Our sex are something worse than asses,
To let them wither on the stalk.

To multiply the human race
Is man's sublime and sacred duty,
Shall we the glorious trust disgrace,
And fly a worm, though bashful beauty?

Let saints in monkish precepts read,
Confirm their continence by pray'r,
But since the cloth is fairly spread,
'Twere folly to refuse a share:

Yet shun a well-frequented coast,
Nor level at a mark that's common;
Nor let it be your savage boast
To wrong each silly, helpless woman.

Provide some jolly, bouncing spouse,
That's qualified to cool your flame;
And should she fortify your brows,
A DUCHESS might have done the same.

EASTER DAY.

SWIFT from the glorious realms above,
The realms of condescending LOVE,
The Cherub did appear!
An earthquake did his message own,
His countenance like lightning shone,
And rolling back the massy stone,
The soldiers died with fear!

Ah! what avail'd their watchful care,
When High OMNIPOTENCE was there,
And all COMMANDING GRACE?

"WOMEN DEVOUT, be not afraid,
The suff'r'g Saviour here was laid,
But now is RISEN, as he said—
"BEHOLD THE HALLOW'D PLACE!"

O glorious thought! O grateful day!
The STONE OF GRIEF is roll'd away,
And FAITH is standing nigh,
In shining raiment pure and white,
Surrounded by RELIGIOUS LIGHT,
At whose mouth awful, piercing light,
The CARNAL PASSIONS die!

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

IN the House of Commons on Tuesday, March 22, Mr. Hobart brought up the report of the committee appointed to try the merits of the petition on the Newark election, declaring that the sitting member was duly elected.

Mr. Wilberforce, in order to ascertain the great mortality of the Slave Trade, moved, that the muster-rolls of all vessels sailing from Bristol and Liverpool be laid upon the table. Ordered.

A petition was presented from several electors at Steyning, praying that the house would bring in a bill to explain certain clauses respecting electors, in the decision of the committee on the merits of the Steyning election. The 4th of May next was appointed for that purpose.

On the motion for the Speaker leaving the chair on the Unclaimed Dividends,

Mr. Whitbread opposed the motion. He considered the measure proposed by the bill before the house as pernicious to every principle of public credit, and he was determined to avail himself of every opportunity which the forms of the house afforded him of opposing it in every stage. He contended, that the dividends of the public creditor, as they lay in the Bank, were as much his property, and ought to be held as sacred as if deposited in his chest at home. He then proceeded to make a few observations on the new security, which ministry held forth to the stock-holders, in lieu of that which the public creditors had stipulated with government.

Mr. Pitt, in answer, observed, that the stock-holders, who certainly best understood their own interest, had not felt themselves in the least alarmed at the bill; and that their faith in government, instead of diminishing, had even increased; for that when the motion for bringing in the bill was first made, the Unclaimed Dividends amounted only to 600,000l. whereas at present they amounted to 700,000l. and upwards.

Mr. Steele denied that the bill tended in the smallest degree to violate the original compact with the public creditor.

Sir Benjamin Hammett moved an adjournment.

Mr. Hulley seconded the motion. He observed, that the small sum of 20,000l. per annum, which was all that could be obtained by this bill, might be much better obtained in another manner. He understood that the Directors of the Bank had waited on the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and, on condition of his dropping the present bill, had offered to circ-

culate the sum of 500,000l. in Exchequer notes, without interest. That the Chancellor of the Exchequer had then asked, whether that sum of 500,000l. would ever be called for? And on the answer of the Directors, that they could agree to circulate the sum mentioned for a limited time only, he replied, that it would not do.

Mr. Pitt did not think it necessary to enter into the merits of the proposal, which the Directors of the Bank had made with respect to the Unclaimed Dividends, since that offer did not at present come before the house. He would say, however, that the proposal of circulating Exchequer notes for 500,000l. for a limited time only was totally inadequate to the sum of 500,000l. which there was the greatest reason in the world to believe would never be reclaimed.

Mr. Grey animadverted on the observations of an honourable member (Mr. Steele) who seemed to exult in having discovered in the letter of the compact of government with the public creditor, a clause which would enable them to escape from the obligations, which the spirit of the compact had imposed. He expressed with much warmth his indignation at the littleness as well as fraudulency of making the letter of the contract an engine to oppress the public creditor, and reminded the house that no government would be trusted long, which did not religiously and bona fide fulfil their engagements.

Mr. Rose contended that government could call the Bank of England to an account, and, by a process of law in the Exchequer, oblige them to give up to government a certain portion of the dividend in question.

Sir James Erskine Sinclair reprobated with great emotion the idea, that, in framing the compact with the public creditor, Parliament could have meditated a concealed fraud, by setting up the letter against the spirit of the compact.

Mr. Fox demanded whether ministry meant seriously to assert that government, by a process of law in the Exchequer, could compel the Bank of England to refund the dividends that had been issued to the Bank for the public creditor? If ministry were disposed to maintain so monstrous an opinion, he would apply to the gentlemen of the law in the house to deliver their sentiments on that head.

Mr. Pitt said, that the queries of the honourable gentleman who spoke last were irrelevant to the business before the house.

Mr. Samuel Thornton observed, that it had been urged as an argument in favour of government's resuming the dividends, that they lay useless in the Bank. He begged the house to believe, that if at any time an expression had fallen from him, that seemed to convey that meaning, that it had fallen from him unintentionally, and that he never meant to insinuate such an idea.

The house divided on the question of adjournment, when the numbers were

Ayes 54. Noes 155. Majority 101.

When the strangers were re-admitted into the gallery, Mr. Fox had been up for several minutes. He said that judicial opinions ought to have been taken and followed on the question, whether the Bank were or were not trustees to the publick?

The bill being gone through, the report was ordered to be received on Thursday.

In the House of Lords, on Wednesday, March 23, The royal assent was given by commission to the Mutiny bill, the Marine Mutiny bill, the East-India Company's Annuity bill, the American Intercourse bill, and to several private bills.

The commissioners, who sat in their robes, were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and Lord Grenville.

Counsel were then called to the bar on the appeal, wherein Joseph Hill, Esq. one of the sworn Clerks of the High Court of Chancery is appellant, and William Luther Sewell, Esq. and others of the Six Clerks of the said courts, are respondents.

Made a progress in several bills from the Commons, after which the house adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, March 23, Pancras Paving bill was read a third time and passed.

Thomas South, now a prisoner in Newgate, was ordered to be brought up on Friday to be discharged.

The Militia Pay bill was presented and read a first time, and ordered to be read a second time.

The Speaker and several members attended the House of Lords, to hear the royal assent given by commission to the American Intercourse bill, the Mutiny bill, and several others.

After their return, Walford's Divorce bill went through the committee.

Colonel Phipps, chairman of the committee, appointed to try the merits of the Exeter election, informed the house, that the committee had ordered a witness into the custody of the Serjeant at Arms, on account of his having refused to attend the committee, and moved, that the Speaker should grant his warrant to con-

tinue the above-mentioned witness in custody of the Serjeant at Arms. Agreed.

Colonel Phipps then brought up the report from the committee, by which it was declared, that John Baring, Esq. the sitting member, was duly elected.

The Sugar bill was read a third time, and passed.

Mr. Ryder moved, that the house should resolve itself into a committee on the duties to be imposed on corn imported from Ireland and the colonies. Agreed.

The house then resolved itself into a committee, and went through several resolutions. Report to be received tomorrow.

Corn bill went through a committee. The report was brought up, and the bill was ordered to be re-committed on the 4th of April.

The report of the committee to try the merits of the petition on the Lauder election was brought up, confirming the election of the sitting member, Major Maitland, and declaring the petition of Mr. Fullarton to be frivolous and vexatious.

Mr. Pitt informed the house, that in order to give certain persons of the Protestant persuasion an opportunity of presenting petitions against the Roman Catholic bill, he intended to move, that the bill, which stands on the order of the day for commitment to-morrow, should be adjourned for a few days.

The report of the committee on the Quebec bill was then brought up. Counsel was heard at the bar against several clauses of the bill; after which

Mr. Pitt moved that the further consideration of the report should be adjourned till this day fe'nnight.

Mr. Fox submitted to the house whether it would not be more consistent with candour, to grant a further time for the consideration of the various clauses of the bill, which he, for one, confessed that he had not sufficiently examined—That there were, however, several clauses extremely objectionable, was evident; and he therefore hoped the Hon. Gentleman over the way (Mr. Pitt) would consent to its re-commitment.

Mr. Pitt replied, that sufficient time had already been given to consider the bill in question, and that he could not consent to delay the public business, in order to indulge the inattention or supineness of any member whatever.

Mr. Hufey had one strong objection to that clause of the bill which respects the representation of the country. You flatter the people of Canada, (said he) that you are going to give them the blessings of an equal representation; but what is the nature of the representation which you propose by this bill? Why, the Governor shall divide the country into whatever

ever number of districts he thinks fit, and, without the least respect to their relative population, he shall determine the number of representatives which each district shall send.—He may add or diminish the number of representatives according to his pleasure, and, in short, may conduct this farce of representation in whatever manner he thinks fit. He appealed to the sense of the house whether a more impudent mockery of representation could well be imagined.

Alderman Watson approved of the principle of the bill, but was of opinion that some clauses would admit of amendment.

Mr. Pitt's motion was then put, and carried in the affirmative.

The other orders of the day were deferred till Friday next; after which the house adjourned.

In the House of Lords on Thursday, March 24, in a committee of privileges, heard Mr. Attorney and Solicitor-General on the petition of George Marquis of Tweedale, and others, complaining of the illegality of the votes of Lord Lindore, and others. The counsel having concluded, the committee adjourned till Tuesday, when the house are to go into the consideration of the petition of Lord Napier.

Mr. Cecil's Divorce bill was read a first time; after which the house adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Friday, March 25, Mr. Grey gave notice, that he intended to bring forward a bill to amend that clause of Mr. Grenville's act, by which committees appointed to try the merits of contested elections are, in certain cases, directed to find the petition frivolous and vexatious.

The report of the special committee on the Slave Trade was brought up, and ordered to be referred to the committee on the Slave Trade.

Sir Benjamin Hammett presented a petition from several stockholders against the bill for converting the floating balance of the Bank of England to the service of government, and praying to be heard by counsel against the bill; but on a representation of Mr. Pitt, Sir Benjamin moved that the petition lie upon the table.

Mr. Pitt gave notice, that on Monday next he should have occasion to deliver to the house a message from his Majesty, relative to the present situation of affairs in Europe.

Mr. Pitt rose to give the usual notice respecting the approaching expiration of the charter granted to the East-India Company. He would content himself, however, with simply giving that notice.

1. That on the 31st day of March, 1791, the charter of the East-India Company expires, to be redeemed by government

for the sum of four millions, two hundred thousand pounds.

2. That the Speaker shall intimate to the Directors of the East-India Company, that their charter expires on the 31st of March, 1791. Agreed to.

Mr. Hufey expressed his satisfaction, that that pernicious charter was approaching to its end, and hoped sincerely that it might never be renewed.

Mr. Rose brought up the report of the committee on the bill for converting to the use of government the sum of 500,000l. being part of the floating balance of the Bank of England. The several clauses of the bill were read and agreed to.

Mr. Chifwell rose to propose a clause, which he hoped the Chancellor of the Exchequer would permit to be added to the bill, enabling the dissenting stockholders to testify their dissent to the bill within three months after it becomes an act of legislation.

Mr. Steele opposed the motion. He observed that this clause was calculated to prevent the operation of the bill *in toto*. He contended that the consent and dissent of the stockholder would be sufficiently ascertained by their withdrawing their dividends within the limited time, or their suffering them to remain in the hands of government.

Mr. Fox could not help considering this as a strange mode of inference, which proved a man's consent from the very declaration of his dissent.

On the question being put, the house divided, when the numbers were:

Ayes 45. Noes 136. Majority 91.

Mr. Fox objected to the words of the preamble, and moved, that instead of the word *immediate* the word *speedy* be inserted.

The amendment was adopted, the report was received, and the bill was ordered to be read a third time.

In the House of Lords on Monday, March 28, Lord Grenville rose and said, that he held in his hand a message from his Majesty, which he moved might be read. It was accordingly read, and was as follows:

" His Majesty thinks it necessary to acquaint the House of Lords that his endeavours, in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification between Russia and the Porte, have, hitherto, proved unsuccessful. His Majesty was desirous to add weight to his future interference, by an augmentation of his naval force; and he hoped that the House of Lords would concur in defraying the expence of such addition."

Lord Grenville moved, that his Majesty's message be taken into consideration tomorrow, and that the Lords be summoned. Ordered.

Lord

Lord Rawdon said, that as there was so full an attendance, he hoped he should be excused if he ventured to remind their Lordships of the discussion of the merits of the Spanish convention, and of the assertions which then had been made by the noble Secretary of State (*Lord Grenville*) of the flourishing condition of the finances of the country. On that ground he was now ready to meet the noble Secretary, if he chose to be explicit.

Lord Grenville repeated what he had said on the occasion to which the noble Lord alluded, that whenever that subject should come under the consideration of Parliament, the revenue of the country would be found to be in a most flourishing situation.

Lord Rawdon said, that though the noble Secretary had evaded the answering of his objection, he should be happy to meet him on his own grounds, and he would now come forward with a distinct proposition, namely, That no actual surplus did exist, and that the report held forth to the public was a gross imposition.

Lord Grenville, in reply, said, that when the noble Lord should bring forward any specific motion on the subject, he should find him not unwilling to meet his arguments.

Lord Rawdon said, to obviate the scruples of the noble Secretary, he would now come forward with a specific motion. He then moved, that a committee be appointed to examine and report the state of the public revenue and expenditure for the three years, commencing the 5th of January, 1786, and ending the 5th of January, 1789.

The motion having been read, *Lord Grenville* hoped the noble Lord would not so hastily press a motion of so much importance; but that he would move some future day for taking it into consideration.

Lord Rawdon said, he had no wish to take the house by surprise, and he had not the least objection to a reasonable delay. He then moved, that the further consideration of the motion should be put off till Wednesday; and that the Lords be summoned. Upon the question being put, it was agreed to *nem. dis.* and here the conversation ended; it having been previously agreed that the committee of privileges on the election of the Scots Peers, to-morrow, should only meet *pro forma*, and then adjourn till Thursday.

In the House of Commons, on Monday, March 28, *The Chancellor of the Exchequer* presented his Majesty's message, which was in substance the same as that presented to the Lords, and moved, that the house to-morrow take it into their consideration.

Mr. Fox asked, if it was intended to move a vote of thanks to his Majesty, and also to offer a supply.

Mr. Pitt replied, that according to custom one part of the answer to his Majesty's gracious message would be, that the house were ready to grant supplies. With respect to further information relative to the measures which administration had thought proper to adopt, he had no charge from his Majesty to lay before the house any documents whatever.

Mr. Fox could not help considering the mode of plunging the nation into war at expence, without even deigning to acquaint them with the cause or even the pretext of such measures, as a very new, violent, and extraordinary step indeed.

Sir George Yonge laid before the committee of Ways and Means an account of the expenses incurred by the late raising of Independent Companies, and moved that the sum of 8000l. be granted to His Majesty on that account.

General Burgoyne condemned the measure of raising new officers, when an army of old, experienced, and meritorious officers remained to be provided for. He contended, that men would have been better raised by recruiting the old corps. He regretted that military affairs were now conducted without the participation of a board of general officers, who were certainly more competent to the subject than a board of the clerks of the War Office. He lamented that a principle of honour, which ought certainly to preside in the direction of military affairs, was now superseded by the sordid money system of 'Change-alley. The War Office was converted into a broker's shop, where men who had money were put over the heads of old and excellent officers, who had only merit to recommend them.

Lord Fielding said, in the present state of our army, the courtesy of the service was such, that the office of a colonel was a sinecure; and his station was rather that of a colonel proprietary (this title is known in some foreign services), than that of a commanding officer. When his regiment was abroad, especially in active service, he had very little connection with it, unless he had also a command in the country, and was thus induced to accompany it.

One mode of raising the men wanted upon the late rupture would have been to have created colonels commanders, who would have repaid their salary by their services, and also have earned their stations by raising a certain number of men for the service of government. Another might have been that adopted by the late Duke of Cumberland, when at the head of his father's army, by adding battalions to the regiments.

Either measure would have been more honourable and less expensive to the nation; more suitable to the service, and congenial to the feelings of officers.

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Colonel Tarleton, anxious as he was, at all times, to watch over the honour of the army, and the welfare of officers, thought it the less necessary to enter into any long discussion upon the subject at present, because the situation of affairs unhappily foreboded that there would be many future opportunities for such discussions. He was, however, encouraged to speak from the consciousness, that no effort of ingenuity, or eloquence was necessary to support his opinion of the present measure.

He had only to repeat the very arguments used by ministry some years since, when the peace establishment was settled. It was then urged, in defence of the system of retaining many officers and few soldiers, that skeleton regiments, thus constituted, might readily be filled up whenever occasion should require. That occasion had lately occurred; but though these officers had been supported in the expectation of the services they were then to do, they had no opportunity of rendering those services.

Colonel Fitzpatrick, in a few words, expressed his disapprobation of the measure.

Colonel Simcoe approved the plan adopted by ministry, but was glad that any opposition to it had produced a mention of Lord Rawdon (General Burgoyne, and several other members had expressed the most flattering opinion of his Lordship,) in the praise of whom, as a gentleman, a soldier, and a citizen, he was very happy to join. He thought men might be more speedily raised in Independent Companies than in any other corps, because officers, who were recruiting for rank, had the general assistance of gentlemen in the different counties, who took an opportunity of rendering them a personal service, by exerting their influence in behalf of their levies.

Mr. Fox considered the question as it related to the constitution, and in this view he thought it to be extremely dangerous. It enabled government, by the sale of military rank, to raise money independently of that house; and, of course, it was only necessary, upon any occasion, to increase the number of officers paid by the nation, in order to produce a sum, which probably the nation would refuse, if the usual application had been made for it.

Mr. Thompson charged the ministry with a violation of contract to the officers of Independent Companies, whose commission for services rendered in the year 1790, were not dated till 1791.

The resolution was then read and agreed to.

In the House of Lords, on Tuesday, March 29, Lord Grenville, without any

preface, moved, that his Majesty's message might be read. The noble Lord began his speech by saying, that in rising to propose an humble and dutiful address to his Majesty on the present occasion, he could, not but feel a considerable degree of regret. Every addition to the public expense was to be lamented as an evil which could only be justified from necessity or from public expediency. With respect to the business, which was the subject of his Majesty's message, it was not necessary to say much. Though his Majesty's humane endeavours to restore the general tranquillity of Europe had in some degree been attended with success, yet it was obvious, that much still remained to be accomplished. He reminded the house, that at the opening of the present Session of Parliament, his Majesty alluded to the war which still unhappily subsisted between Russia and the Porte, and that he was desirous of employing his weight and influence in endeavouring to bring about an accommodation. This sentiment was accordingly recognized by Parliament in their address, and unanimously agreed to. In pursuance of that system, his Majesty now came to demand an augmentation of his naval force, to give more weight to his future interference, and he trusted the house would still entertain those sentiments to which they had formerly assented. It was not now the question, whether we ought, or ought not, to have formed continental alliances—that question was gone by, though his opinion on the subject was not in the least degree changed from any circumstances which had arisen on the present occasion. We had entered into an alliance with Prussia, and every principle of national honour and justice called on us to fulfil the terms of it, for the general interests of both countries. The event of the war between Russia and the Porte was highly interesting to us, and he saw no reason why Parliament should now withhold that confidence from his Majesty's ministers which they had hitherto reposed in them. The object of his Majesty pointed to the most flattering prospect of permanent tranquillity, and he hoped it would meet the general concurrence of the house. He concluded with moving the address, which was, as usual, the mere echo of the message.

Earl Fitzwilliam expressed his surprise on hearing, from one of his Majesty's confidential servants, that this country was to be plunged into an offensive war in order to fulfil the stipulations of a treaty with Prussia, which, at the time it was formed, was held out merely as a defensive alliance. In his opinion it was of very little consequence to this country, whether the forts in dispute were to continue

sane in the hands of the Empress, or were restored to the Porte. He concluded with moving an amendment to the address, the purport of which was to express the concern of the house for his Majesty's unsuccessful endeavours to effect a pacification between Russia and the Porte; but uninformed as they were of the causes which had rendered an addition to the naval force of the country necessary, they humbly hoped his Majesty would be graciously pleased to communicate such information to the house as would enable them to deliberate on the requisition contained in his Majesty's most gracious message.

Lord Portchester, with much warmth, reprobated that contemptuous silence with which his Majesty's ministers chose to treat the house. They presumed too much, he was afraid, on the situation of our ancient enemy (France); and, in consequence of the present circumstances of that kingdom, they arrogantly presumed to dictate to all the other nations of Europe.

The Earl of Carlisle asked, if the noble Lord imagined that Parliament would always continue to act upon the newly adopted principle of unlimited confidence? Did he imagine the house were still dupes enough to believe that the armament of last year was not at first destined to act in the north, though it had afterwards been employed in exhibiting a very pleasing shew to parties of pleasure between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight? Russia, he maintained, was the only ally which it was our particular interest to court; and, after a few months' bullying, he was afraid we should have reason to regret our differences.

Lord Grenville assured the house, that by his silence he had not the most distant intention of treating the house with disrespect, far less with any degree of contempt.

Lord Stormont condemned the conduct of ministers, as weak and arrogant. The noble Viscount said, he considered the hostile aggression now meditating against Russia as one of the most unjust and unprovoked that ever stained the annals of this country. The decided and avowed purpose of it was to compel Russia to relinquish advantages which she has acquired in the course of an expensive and a bloody war, into which she was originally forced.

The Duke of Richmond endeavoured to answer the arguments of *Lord Stormont*, and dwelt much on the necessity of giving confidence to the executive government.

Lord Loughborough attacked the measure, as equally impolitic and unjust. At his time of life, indignation was not easily excited; but he could not help being

struck with astonishment at a noble Lord gravely rising to move an address to the King for an additional armament, without the least communication to the house of any thing which could justify such a measure. It was impossible to see the end the calamities to which this unfortunate dispute might lead. Whatever might be the event, he was convinced a war with Russia would not be the war of the people. In this part of his argument, the learned Lord spoke with much approbation of the wisdom of the National Assembly of France, in their discussion of the question of war or peace.

The Lord Chancellor assured the house, that his Majesty's ministers could not, in his opinion, be guilty of any greater act of folly than by disclosing that intelligence, which was now so eagerly called for. He was responsible for this advice; and the other members of the cabinet were, of course, responsible both for the propriety and secrecy of their conduct, of which their Lordships would receive full information, as soon as it could be safely given.

The Marquis of Lansdowne said, that in books of military policy it was laid down as a rule, not to practise the most ingenious expedients very frequently, because the increased vigilance of the enemy would at length detect them, and they must then end in the destruction of their contrivers. His Majesty's ministers, he was fearful, had not profited by any such rule. They had been accustomed to lead the people into their own measures, and to justify their measures by such suggestions as it was supposed might be most acceptable to the people.

Spanish doubloons, Acapulco ships, and the mines of Mexico, had lately been the promised profits of a Spanish war, when that was expected; and the promises had certainly some popularity. What could be offered as a *douceur* for a war with Russia, he did not know. They had neither mines nor doubloons; and the only valuable material furnished by their country was iron, which was certainly not quite so popular as gold!

War, for he considered war as the consequence of the armament, was to be commenced for reasons not assigned to Parliament, but which Parliament were uncontrollably called upon to approve. "Give us (say ministers) confidence and supplies at present; hereafter we will give you accounts, and reasons, and statements." This was the language of ministers, which had been used lately upon the rupture with Spain, and was now revived, when it was intended to embroil this country in the affairs of the Continent.

War could not be carried on without taxes, and it behoved him to state the inability

inability of the lower classes of the people to bear them.

Such general objections there existed at present to the commencement of any war. That in which we were now about to be engaged was likely to be more particularly disadvantageous to us. The King of Prussia had particularly noticed the disadvantage of all wars with this country, and even treated the design of carrying them on with ridicule.

In every volume of his extensive work upon the events of his own times, he had represented Russia as a power totally unconquerable and independent.

If we meant to attack her forts upon the Baltic, it would be necessary to approach them by gallies, and of these we had none. The King of Sweden, indeed, had; and we might apply for them. The noble Marquis would not presume to reply for that monarch to such an application; but he would say that the King of Sweden knew us!

We had not supported him in a war, to which he had been partly instigated by us, and he might probably be inclined to tell us so.

Whatever support the King of Prussia might be able to give us, would be balanced by the assistance which Austria could afford to Russia; and as to our other ally, Holland, what reliance could be placed upon a power so addicted to the love of gain, that while their own Bank was failing into a state of insolvency, their East-India Company was ruined, and their West-India Company was failing, they had sent a loan to the very enemy, whom with us, they were to encounter in the Baltic!

The Duke of Leeds supported the original motion for the address, upon the ground, that all ministers were entitled to confidence, till they had been guilty of some abuse of it.

The question being called for, the house divided. For the amendment 36. Against it 96. Majority 60.

In the House of Commons, on Tuesday, March 29, Mr. Pitt rose, and moved an address to the King, which, as usual, was an echo to the message, with the addition, that the Commons would not fail to afford his Majesty such supplies as might be necessary to the support of his endeavours for restoring the peace of Europe.

Mr. Pitt recommended this address in a very short speech, stating the general necessity of supporting the honourable character this country now held in the scale of Europe; and the propriety of our interference upon the present occasion. The motion being seconded,

Lord Wycombe rose and said, that his duty to his constituents would not permit him to remain silent when an address was

proposed, which was to convey the sanction of that house to measures unknown and undefined. The minister came down with a message, importing, that an armament would be wanted, for the support of which, recourse would be had to that house; and when he moved an address, implying the consent of the house to the measure, he did not think it necessary to offer any other reasons for it, than were stated in the message itself.

This was the old claim of confidence; a claim which he should, in general, oppose, though it should be made by those, in his opinion, better entitled to it than the present ministry.

Mr. Coke opposed the address, because he could himself see no occasion for the armament, and what reasons his own mind did not afford for it, the ministry had not attempted to supply.

The minister, upon this, as upon other occasions, called for the confidence of the house; but he, for one, could not perceive in his past conduct any thing which could entitle him to that confidence.—Neither the mode of his coming into power, nor the manner of his retaining it, could win him the favour of any unprejudiced mind; much less could his use of the late armament, and his barren account of the negotiation, which accompanied it, be acceptable to that house, or the public. He concluded with moving an amendment, the same in substance as that moved in the House of Lords.

Mr. Steele rose, to reply to the general and hackneyed arguments, for so, he said, they might be called, which had been used against the claim so duly made for the confidence of that house. It was impossible, that any measure could be beneficially conducted, without that confidence; and it was known, that, if it was misused, ministry were answerable for it. By disclosing the purpose of an armament, the effect would be prevented; while those, who withheld the information, increased their own responsibility by their secrecy, at the same time that they did it to serve the public.

Mr. Fox said, he saw no reason, or rather he could guess, at no possible reason for warlike preparations at the present moment; for the honourable gentleman, (Mr. Pitt) had wrapped himself up in the most impenetrable obscurity. He came down to the house to request that they would express their readiness to grant supplies to his Majesty, and that they would consent to an augmentation of his forces; but to what purpose those forces were to be applied, or why the veins of the nation should be again opened, and the public purse, already exhausted by continual wars, should be squeezed again, he had not deigned to inform the representatives

of the nation? It would appear that the British minister had assumed that privilege of infallibility, which the Roman Pontiff seemed disposed to resign. I will drain your purse, says the minister—I will open your veins, and your blood shall flow in every corner of the globe; but why the public treasury is exhausted, or why the nation is involved in the flames of war, or drenched in streams of blood, it is not the business of the nation to enquire. Put your trust in me, for I am infallible—let your faith in me be unlimited, and you shall see by what mighty miracles I shall lead you through those seas of trouble, those quicksands of perdition, into which I have thought proper to conduct you.

Abstracting the question from the general interest of humanity, which was certainly, however, the first and greatest interest of the human race, he could not but consider it, even in the partial and narrow view in which ministers are apt to consider questions of this nature, even in that narrow and limited view he could not but consider the measure proposed to be adopted as impolitic and unjust. Here Mr. Fox went into a very interesting discussion of the balance of power in Europe, of the bias and interests of the several states, and took a review of the several treaties which this country had entered into with Russia. He concluded by giving his hearty concurrence to the amendment.

Mr. Pitt, in reply, defended the augmentation of our naval forces, upon the grounds of good policy, and expediency. He contended, that supporting the balance of power in Europe, was a measure which in all enlightened times, had ever been adopted as a fixed principle with every Potentate therein; and in the whole course of its annals, he could not discover a period wherein it was more absolutely necessary to put that principle in practice, than at this instant.

As to the "confidence" so vehemently inveighed against by the honourable gentleman, which in his opinion was due to ministry as long as a ministry existed in this country—he, for his part, declared in the face of that country, and before that house, that longer than he himself stood in his own conscience, perfectly satisfied that he merited it, no longer did he wish, or would he impose upon the good sense or good nature of the kingdom in desiring or seeking it. In no instance of his life could he discover how or where he forfeited his title to it; and till he did, it was not possible for him to perceive how the honourable gentleman could be justified in torturing even vehemence itself to tantalize and to reproach it.

See also *the Statesman's Magazine*, vol. viii. p. 100.

It had been remarked by the right honourable gentleman (Mr. Fox) as a specimen and example, whereby the present ministry should conduct themselves, the government of this country, in the year 1782, peremptorily refused to take part in the war and dispute which then existed between Russia and the Port. He admitted that, and, what was more, he acknowledged the propriety of that refusal; but he had to observe, that at that period we were engaged in the most expensive war that any nation before us was ever involved in, and therefore the minister of that day, judging wisely, and feeling the weight of those troubles we were at the end affected by, very properly refused to join in a dispute which we were then very unequal to engage in. But that was not the case at present; our resources were great, our finances flourishing, and our consequence in the estimation of the surrounding nations almost at its zenith; it, therefore, either cause, time, or opportunity, were required for us to prosecute that now, which in the year 1782 we rejected and refused, we find all these circumstances crowd on us in abundance, and he had no doubt but we should take every advantage of them.

The right honourable gentleman then took a general view of our several interests in the contests of the European powers with each other, and what relation they bore to us; and concluded with declaring his most decided negative to the amendment.

The house divided, Ayes 135. Noses 28. Majority against the amendment 99.

The original motion was then put and carried.

In the House of Lords, on Wednesday, March 30, Earl Fitzwilliam rose to give notice, that on Friday next he should move the house to take into consideration the treaty of alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, and he should now move that the Lords be summoned; which, after some conversation, was agreed to.

Lord Rawdon, in consequence of the notice he had on a former day given, rose to renew his motion for appointing a committee to examine and report the state of the public revenue and expenditure, for the years 1786, 1787, and 1788. The noble Secretary of State (Grenville) had very confidently asserted that he was ready to meet the discussion of that subject, whenever it should be brought forward. He was now ready to meet the noble Lord on his own ground, and he asserted that, for the three years to which he alluded, the account held out to the public was false and delusive; an, instead of their being a surplus, there was in truth

an actual deficiency of the revenue. He called on the noble Lord to refute his assertions, or to agree to his motion for a committee. He then moved, that a committee be appointed to examine and report the state of the public revenue and expenditure for the three years, commencing the 5th of January, 1786, and ending the 5th of January, 1789.

Lord Grenville said, that nothing had been stated which could induce him to agree to the appointment of a committee; for the best proof of the flourishing state of the revenue was, that a million had annually been applied for the purpose of diminishing the National Debt.

Lord Rawdon contended that the question was now fairly at issue between him and the noble Lord, and on the truth of what they each asserted their characters were committed. He called on the house to decide between them. He admitted that a million had annually been paid under the pretence of extinguishing a part of the National Debt, but he maintained, that a greater debt had been incurred, and this he pledged himself to prove in the committee.

Lord Stormont supported the arguments of Lord Rawdon for an enquiry into the state of the revenue, which, in the present critical conjuncture of public affairs, seemed more than ever necessary. The noble Secretary of State one day courts investigation, and in a high tone declares, that he is ready to meet every enquiry; but no sooner is an enquiry demanded, than he instantly takes refuge in his ministerial cloak, securely sheltered from the prying eyes of parliament.

Lord Grenville defended the report made by the select committee, and entered into some detail of calculation to shew that it was well-founded.

The Duke of Richmond opposed the motion, as he saw no good that could possibly result from it. It might, perhaps, be important to know what was the present state of the revenue, but that

was not the object of the noble Lord; whose motion only went to the three years, commencing the 5th of January, 1786, and ending the 5th of January, 1789.

The house then divided, when the numbers were, Contents 23. Not Contests 55. Majority 32.

In the House of Commons, on Wednesday, March 30, the Master of the Rolls moved, that a committee be appointed to take into consideration that part of an act passed in the 18th year of his Majesty's reign, for regulating the costs of taxation on the expences of contested elections. A committee was ordered accordingly.

The house went into a committee on the duties to be imposed on taxed goat skins.

Mr. Rose moved, that an additional duty of ten shillings per dozen should be laid upon tanned goat skins.

Mr. Powys moved, that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, that he would be graciously pleased to order to be laid before the House of Commons copies of all such information as had been received by the Committee of the Privy Council, relative to the present state of agriculture in Great Britain and Ireland, as also an account of the average prices of grain in Great-Britain, Ireland, and the colonies, together with the ratio of expense incurred in importing grain from foreign parts into the ports of Great-Britain.

The reason, he observed, for requiring this information, was in order to ascertain whether or not the assertion of some people was well-founded, that neither Great Britain nor Europe produced a sufficient quantity of grain for the consumption of the inhabitants. And, without this information, he contended that the house had no solid foundation on which they could establish a bill for the regulation of the corn market.

The motion was then put and negatived.

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

M. Colman's theatre in the Hay-market was opened for the summer season, and two new pieces have already been produced. The first was named by its author a play, in three acts, called *The Kentish Barons*, written by the Hon. Francis North. The characters were represented as follow:

Mortimer,	<i>Mr. Bentley.</i>
Clifford,	<i>Mr. Johnson.</i>
Bertram,	<i>Mr. Aickin.</i>
Gam,	<i>Mr. Bannister, jun.</i>
Olbert,	<i>Mr. Goodall.</i>

William,	<i>Mr. Chapman.</i>
Walter,	<i>Mr. Evatt.</i>
Elina,	<i>Mrs. Kemble.</i>
Beatrice,	<i>Mrs. Taylor.</i>
Susan,	<i>Mrs. Webb.</i>

The following are the out-lines of the fable:

Mortimer, a baron, had been entrusted, by another baron, whose friend he pretended to be, with the wardship of Elina, that baron's daughter. Elina is attached to Clifford, a young baron in the neighbourhood. Mortimer, who really hated

the family and man he pretended to love, resolves to ruin Elina, and endeavour to make Osbert (a young dependent) instrumental in carrying on a villainous design against her. Osbert, after much struggle, agrees, but was restrained by his conscience, from executing his purpose.

Mortimer dismisses him the castle; Elina, however, contrives to see him before his departure, and sends by him a message to Clifford, her lover, conjuring him to relieve her. He, with his friend Bertram, and Osbert, after encountering great danger, discomfits Mortimer. Osbert turns out to be her brother, stolen from his parents when very young. The lovers marry, and the piece concludes.

If the audience wished for variety, here they have enough, for like Gay's "What do you call it?" it is tragedy, comedy, opera, farce, and almost pantomime, for a more heterogeneous medley we believe was never before brought on the stage. With curtailing, altering, &c. by the ingenious pen of Mr. Sheridan, and a good quantity of newspaper puffs, it may perhaps exist its nine nights.

The other, a comedy in three acts, under the title of *Next Door Neighbours*, an avowed translation from the French, by Mrs. Inchbald.

The principal characters were:

Sir George Splendor,	<i>Mr. Palmer.</i>
His Uncle,	<i>Mr. Aickin.</i>
Charles,	<i>Mr. Palmer, jun.</i>
—	<i>Mr. R. Palmer.</i>
Bluntly,	<i>Mr. Bannister, jun.</i>
Manly,	<i>Mr. Kemble.</i>
Lady Carol. Seymour,	<i>Mrs. Brooke.</i>
Eleanor,	<i>Mrs. Kemble.</i>

The story consists of two parts.

Lady Caroline receives the addresses of Sir George, accepts his lavish presents, and wins his whole fortune at play, in order to cure him of a habit of thoughtless extravagance and propensity to gaming. The uncle, his son, and supposed daughter, are a family in distress; and after sufficient trials of their nice sense of virtue and honor, are rewarded by the discovery, that Eleanor, the supposed daughter, is the sister of Sir George, and entitled to a fortune equal to his.

In these materials there is nothing new, but they are managed with address. The incidents are natural, and happily introduced; the characters are well marked, and strongly contrasted; the sentiments are just and forcible; the dialogue pointed and elegant; and the general effect interesting. The whole possesses that pleasing sprightliness which distinguishes Mrs. Inchbald's pieces.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Milan, May 9.

THE Milanese have obtained of the Emperor an advantage which they prize highly, that of having a deputy to reside at Vienna, who is to watch the interests of their State. M. de Visconti, who was appointed to that deputation, and who is now at Vienna, has been recalled, and will be succeeded by the Marquis de Castiglioni.

Bucharest, May 12. On the 2nd of last month the Grand Vizir, Jussuf Pacha, arrived in Silistria, with an army of some thousands of men, and seems preparing to throw a bridge over the Danube, in order to take the Russians in the rear in Wallachia, which we shall not permit, and orders have been sent to use force in case of need.

The garrison of Brailow consists of 15,000 men, 6000 of whom are in the fortresses, and 6000 in two outward entrenchments. The Turks have removed all the Christians from the fortresses, burnt down the suburbs, and seem resolved to defend themselves to the last. A corps of Turks is also assembling at Widdin.

Our troops are approaching the frontiers of Turkey, and a line is forming from Wallachia to Croatia sufficiently strong

to defend our country from any hostile intentions of the Turks.

Aranjuez, May 30. A courier, arrived lately, has brought accounts of the renewal of the treaty of peace between Spain and the Emperor of Morocco.

Peterburgh, May 31. The squadron from Revel has joined that at Cronstadt commanded by Admiral Kruse. The two divisions at present form a fleet of 33 ships of the line, 16 frigates, and 24 cutters, with brigantines, and some vessels of a smaller size. Preparations are making for the immediate departure of this fleet. The flotilla of the Prince of Nassau is nearly ready, and will be able to sail at the same time. The armaments are continued with great activity, and if our Court is not in certain expectation of a new war, it at least takes such measures as to preclude all fear of such an event taking them by surprise.

Peterburgh, June 3. The day before yesterday Mr. Fawkener, the English Plenipotentiary, had the honour to be presented to the Empress, at Czarsko Zelo, where her Majesty enjoys good health.

Rome, June 3. The chagrin experienced by his Holiness, occasioned by the revolt of Avignon and the Decrees of the National Assembly

of 1790

Assembly of France relative to the Clergy, is little alleviated by learning the progress of the Roman Catholic religion in some of the provinces of North-America, and chiefly in Acadia, Maryland, and part of Pennsylvania. Mr. Charles Walmedy, Bishop of Rama, has consecrated Mr. John Carroll Superior of the Foreign Millions, in quality of Bishop of Baltimore; the Congress of Philadelphia having permitted the free exercise of the Roman Catholic Religion in the aforesaid provinces.

The Tribunal of the Inquisition have prohibited any person from printing the life of Cagliostro, without previous approbation.

Vienna, June 4. The fate of the Wallachians having excited the compassion of the Bishops of Transylvania, some of them are arrived here to implore the bounty of his Majesty in favor of those poor inhabitants. The following is the subject of their request: Transylvania is inhabited by four descriptions of people; the Cicules (whom they suppose to be the remains of the Huns,) Saxons, Hungarians, and Wallachians. The three former have, for these two ages past, formed along the Provincial States, and treat the Wallachians as subjects. The worst effect of this servitude, hitherto countenanced by the Sovereigns of that Province, consists in depriving the Wallachians of all means of learning the arts and trades, and obliging them to confine themselves solely to agriculture and the care of cattle. The Transylvanian Bishops, therefore, have requested of the Emperor that these people may, like all other subjects of the empire, have the liberty of exercising all the arts and trades, and to support themselves by their industry. They hope that his Majesty will restore to them the most sacred of all rights, the liberty to labour, which is merely the privilege of existing, and that he will pay no attention to the claims of the feudalists, whose interest consists in retaining a numerous people in misery and servitude.

Fribourg, June 15. The Convents of Religious, which the Emperor Joseph, in his suppressions in Upper Austria, had spared, have been for some time soliciting for permission to receive Novices, and the liberty of receiving the vows of those who had reached their 21st year. This permission has at length been granted by the Court, and communicated to the houses of Klosterwald, Kreuzthal, and Habsthal, in Neilenbourg. The day on which the Bailiwick of Stokach made known this intelligence, five Novices were received at Habsthal, and shortly after four ladies took the vows before the Prelate of Tennebach,

SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh, July 27. Wednesday an aqueduct bridge, on the great canal, about a mile to the eastward of Old Kilpatrick, broke down, by which accident upwards of two miles of water ran out, which will stop the navigation on the canal to the Clyde till the bridge be repaired. The water did little or no damage to the contiguous grounds, it having a very short run to the Clyde.

COUNTRY NEWS.

Whitehaven, June 14. The vicissitude of weather has seldom been more displayed than within these few days, when, in the course of twelve hours, summer and winter have alternately and repeatedly had the predominance. This is partially felt by the inhabitants on the sea coast, but those living in the interior and mountainous parts of this county, notwithstanding their being accustomed to witness frequent and sudden changes in the atmosphere, have had their attention aroused in a very particular manner.

On Sunday morning last, in the neighbourhood of the celebrated lakes of Loweswater, Crummock, and Buttermere, the tops of the surrounding mountains were seen covered with snow, which extended downwards, though thinly scattered, in some parts within a few yards of their bases. These delightful vales were, however, beautifully gilded by the sun, and the feathered inmates of their numerous and enchanting groves enlivened them with their melody.

Minehead, Somersetshire, July 7. Last Tuesday noon a miller of this town was trying an experiment, by burning a tar barrel, when the wind being very high, the fire communicated to a large stack of furze that stood in his yard, which instantly got into a blaze, and spread with the greatest rapidity to the adjoining dwellings, so that before the next morning upwards of 72 houses, comprising almost the whole of the middle town, were reduced to ashes. By this terrible and sudden fire the centre of this once respectable and flourishing maritime town is now become a heap of ruins. Among the few good houses which providentially escaped the general conflagration, are those of Mrs. Davis, Mr. Warren, Mr. H. Ball, Mr. P. Ball, and a few others. One life was lost, viz. that of Mr. D. Price, a poor maniac, who, being confined, was in the hurry and confusion forgotten till too late. What adds to this heavy affliction is, that few, if any, of the houses were insured. The great loss of the sufferers cannot yet be ascertained.

M A R R I E D.

Liberty Taylor, Esq. brother to the member for Maidstone, to Miss Allen, of Maidstone, daughter of the late Captain Allen, who was nearly related to Lord Amberth.

Rev. Henry Hatton, to Miss Pepperell, eldest daughter to Sir William Pepperrell, Bart. of Harley-street.

Gilbert Thomas Edwards, Esq. to Mrs. Grice, widow of the late Thomas Grice, Esq. of Charlton, in the county of Middlesex.

Captain Collingwood, of his Majesty's ship Mermaid, to Miss Blackett, daughter of John Erasmus Blackett, Esq. Mayor of Newcastle.

Henry Bond, Esq. Captain of the Royal Admiral East-Indiaman, to Miss Mary Young.

The Rev. John Forth, A. M. chaplain to the Earl of Carlisle, and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, to Miss Woodhouse, niece to the late James Woodhouse, Esq. of York.

R. Dunhill, son of John Dunhill, Esq. Mayor of Doncaster, to Miss Ann Smith, of Hayfields.

Edward Lane, Esq. of Worting-Lodge, Hampshire, to Miss Allen, daughter of Captain Allen, of the Royal Navy.

Thomas Smith, Esq. of the Inner Temple, to the Hon. Miss Mary Hely Hutchinson, daughter to the Right Hon. the Secretary of State of Ireland, and sister to Lord Donoughmore.

Rowland Farmer Okeover, of Oldbury, Esq. to Mrs. Holden, of Sheepy.

Mr. N. Heywood, merchant, of Liverpool, to Miss Percival, eldest daughter of Dr. Percival, of Manchester.

John Hagge, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn, to Miss Jones, of Braintree, Essex.

Francis Wynch, Esq. son of the late Governor of that name, to Miss Lucy Dorothy Perfect, second daughter of Dr. William Perfect, of West Malling, in Kent.

William Robert Phillimore, Esq. to the Hon. Sarah Hanley Ongley, youngest daughter of the late Lord Ongley.

Rev. B. Thickens, B. D. of Ross, Herefordshire, to Miss Westley, of Southam.

Rev. Joseph Stennett, to Mrs. Straphan, of James-street.

Mr. George Maltby, jun. of Queen-street, Cheapside, to Miss Mary Webster, of Hampstead.

William Fitz-Herbert Brockholes, Esq. of Claughton-Heaton and Maines-Hall, in the county palatine of Lancaster, to Miss Mary Henneage, of Cadeby, in the county of Lincoln.

At Dublin, Conyngham Jones, Esq. of Doldartown, county of Meath, Lieutenant in the fourth regiment of dragoons, and Aid de Camp to his Excel-

lency the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, to Miss Shawe, eldest daughter of Lieutenant-Colonel Shawe.

John Chardin Musgrave, Esq. son of Sir Philip Musgrave, Bart. to Miss Farmer, daughter of the Rev. Edmund Farmer, rector of Crundale, Kent.

Charles Worthington, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn, to Miss Elizabeth Maude, daughter of the late James Maude, Esq. of New Broad-street buildings.

Rev. Henry Wakham, second son of Dr. Wakeman, Dean of Bocking, to Miss Jane Nottidge, third daughter of John Nottidge, Esq. of Bocking.

Captain Saunders, of the 4th regiment of dragoons, to Miss Smith, eldest daughter of Alderman Smith.

D I E D.

Aged 65, the Right Hon. the Lady Anne Hamilton, relish of the late Lord Anne Hamilton, youngest son of James, fourth Duke of Hamilton. Her Ladyship was daughter and sole heiress of Charles Powell, Esq. of Pen-y-Boot, in the county of Carmarthen, South Wales.

At Canterbury, Miss Rogers, Esq. Collector of his Majesty's Customs at the city.

James Cross, Esq. banker, of Bath.

William Reeve, Esq. of Melton Mowbray, Leicestershire, father of W. Reeve, Esq. Barrister at Law, and Deputy Recorder of Stamford.

In the 75th year of his age, Dr. Charles Bissell, who was eminent both as a physician and military engineer.

Mrs. Stewart, of Ilminster, wife to Mr. Robert Stewart, formerly an eminent dealer in Gracechurch-street.

John Batchelor, Esq. of Mare street, Hackney, one of the Governors and Guardians of the poor of that parish.

Mrs. Rawlins, aged 88, at her house in Paddington-street, St. Mary-le-bone.

At Bennfield, in Northamptonshire, at the communion table in the church, Mrs. York, wife of Mr. York, of Faringwood. She went to church in perfect health.

At Rippon, Yorkshire, in a very advanced age, the Rev. Francis Wanley, D. D. Dean of the Collegiate church of Rippon, Rector of Stokesley, and Prebendary of the churches of York, Southwell, and Hereford.

Richard Gee, Esq. in the 86th year of his age.

Mrs. Hall, of Monsey, in Surry.

At Lille, in Flanders, Lewis Lochet, Esq. late Lieutenant-Colonel of the Belgian Legion, and who formerly kept the Royal Military Academy at Chelsea.

Major-General Gladwin, who served a long time in America, and who was very severely

severely wounded in the action with the French and Indians on the Banks of the Ohio, in July 1755, when the renowned General Braddock fell.

Sir Francis Eliot, Bart. of Stobs.

In Winchester street, Salisbury, the widow Poor, aged 101 years. She was the oldest woman in that city.

At Ostend, in the 69th year of his age, the Rev. Peter Whalley, LL. B. Rector of the United Parishes of St. Gabriel Fenwick church, and St. Margaret Patten, in the City of London, Vicar of Horley, in Surrey, and formerly Grammar Master of Christ's Hospital.

Mrs. Madan, relief of the late Rev. Martin Madan.

Mr. Allen, of Piccadilly, plumber, walking in St. James's-street, was seized with a sudden fit, fell down, and instantly expired. He was in good health and spirits the moment before.

Major Charles Edmondstone, brother of Sir Archibald Edmondstone, of Duntreath, Bart.

In the 75th year of his age, Mr. Ludgate, one of the oldest inhabitants of the parish of Islington.

Suddenly, James Webb, Esq. of Wokingham, Berks.

William Randolph, an eminent merchant at Bristol, in a fit of insanity. He shot himself behind a hay-rick, in a field near that city.

At Altrington, the Rev. James Pitman. Rev. Mr. Leech, Rector of Woudham. Sir Lionel Lloyd, of Bedford-square. The Countess Dowager of Aberdeen.

At Malling Abbey, in Kent, Benjamin Hatley Foote, Esq. of that place.

Mrs Mary Lateward.

Thomas Bayley, Esq. Clerk of the North Road at the General Post Office.

At Cirencester, the Rev. William Dore, for many years a Dissenting Minister in that place.

At Berwick St. John, Wilts, the Rev. Edward Rolle, B. D. in the 89th year of his age. He had been Rector of that parish near 36 years, Vicar of Morclinch, in Somersetshire, and for several years one of the Prebendaries of the Church of Salisbury.

William Comber Kirkby, Esq.

Sir Edward Manly Pryce, Bart.

Lord Downe, eldest son and heir of the Earl of Moray.

John Edwards, Esq. many years Senior Clerk of the Chamberlain's Office, Guildhall.

At Chatham, aged upwards of 70, Mr. William Payne, formerly Surveyor of that Yard, and afterwards Master Caulker and Builder's Assistant.

At Portsmouth, William Haslett, the oldest shipwright in the yard, having been in that situation above 67 years.

BANKRUPTS.

Joseph Fogg, of Gainsford-street, Southwark, Surry, cooper. Henry Hale, of Ilminster, Somersetshire, grocer and ironmonger. James Cuden, late of Bridge-Street, in the parish of St. Paul, Covent-Garden, Middlesex, vintner. Charles Smythe, now or late of the city of Bristol, cabinet-maker. Wm. Heywood, of London, merchant. John Irving, of Overton, Hants, hawker and pedlar. Edw. Onion, of the city of Bristol, common-brewer. James Carter, of Exchange-alley, London, broker. Wm. Tyler, now or late of Mount Sorrell, Leicestershire, cornfactor. Owen Gallagher, now or late of Hitchin, Hertfordshire, shopkeeper. Robert Backhouse, of the Upper Ground, Surry, baker. John Hill, late of Holborn, Middlesex, horse-dealer. Elizabeth Bennett, of Warwick, mercer. George Heflope, late of Toll Square, in the parish of Tynemouth, Northumberland, ship-owner. Archibald Dalzel, formerly of the city of Lisbon, late of the city of London, and now of Liverpool, Lancashire, merchant. Isaac Moseley, the younger, of Manchester, Lancashire, and Thomas Tofield, late of the city of Amsterdam, but now of Manchester, merchants and copartners. Thos. Hulme, of Manchester, Lancashire, dyer. Henry Hoyte, of Ilminster, Somersetshire, grocer and ironmonger. John Panting, of Broad Street, in the parish of St. Giles, Middlesex, linen draper. Robert Durnford, of Drury Lane, Westminster, Middlesex, goldbeater. Peter Ross, of Jewin Street, London, baker. James Elliott, of Crayford, Kent, carpenter. Josiah Gregory, of Manchester, Lancashire, baker. William Emerton, of Hertford, linen draper. John Ward, of Manchester, Lancashire, fustian manufacturer. John Stanton, of the parish of West Bromwich, Staffordshire, butcher. Thomas Hughes, late of Faversham, Kent, grocer. Robert Turner, of Oxford Road, Middlesex, horse dealer. Thomas Tant, of Little James Street, Gray's Inn Lane, in the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, Middlesex, victualler. Anna Cheffyn and John Thomas Cheffyn, of Aldgate High Street, in the city of London, ironmongers and partners. Isaac Joseph and Benjamin Lyons, of Duke's place, London, copartners, dealers, and chapmen. John Waller, of Church-Court, in the parish of St. Martin in the Fields, Middlesex, cordwainer. John Lewis Bellington, late of Hoddeson, Hertfordshire, but now or late of New Crofs, in the parish of St. Paul, Deptford, Kent, dealer and chapman. John Their, of Grafton-street, in the parish of St. James, in the city of Westminster, cheesemonger. Wm. Edwards, of Cheapside, London, watchmaker. John Tucker, of Axminster, Devonshire, grocer and shopkeeper.

PRICE OF STOCKS IN JUNE AND JULY, 1791.

Bank Stock.	per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.		per C.	
	Days	Stock.	Redeem.	Long.	Short.	India.	India.	S. India.	S. India.	Stock.	Stock.	Am.	Am.	Bonds.	Bonds.	Stock.	Stock.	Am.	Am.	Bills.	Tontine.	Tickets.
30.	12	80	80	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120	120
31.	13	81	81	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121
1.	14	82	82	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122	122
2.	15	83	83	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123
3.	16	84	84	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	124
4.	17	85	85	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
5.	18	86	86	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126	126
6.	19	87	87	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127
7.	20	88	88	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128
8.	21	89	89	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129	129
9.	22	90	90	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130
10.	23	91	91	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	131
11.	24	92	92	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132	132
12.	25	93	93	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133	133
13.	26	94	94	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134	134
14.	27	95	95	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135	135
15.	28	96	96	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136
16.	29	97	97	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137
17.	30	98	98	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138	138
18.	31	99	99	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139
19.	1.	100	100	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	140
20.	2.	101	101	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141
21.	3.	102	102	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
22.	4.	103	103	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY

In LONDON, for July, 1791.
By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, Holborn.
Height of the Barometer and Thermometer with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer Inches, and 100th Part.	Thermome- ter.		Weather in July, 1791.
		Fahreheit's.	Weather	
27.	29	69	77	55 Fair
28.	29	86	85	Ditto
29.	29	77	61	Ditto
30.	29	53	50	Showers
Ju. 1.	29	48	48	Fair
2.	29	39	49	Showers
3.	29	45	50	Cloudy
4.	29	51	52	Showers
5.	29	53	56	Ditto
6.	29	68	81	Ditto
7.	29	80	78	Fair
8.	29	77	78	Showers
9.	29	77	77	Ditto
10.	29	60	38	Fair
11.	29	31	43	Rain
12.	29	87	63	Ditto
13.	29	64	74	Cloudy
14.	29	78	84	Fair
15.	29	99	94	Ditto
16.	29	87	76	Ditto
17.	29	74	71	Ditto
18.	29	63	51	Showers
19.	29	51	55	Ditto
20.	29	58	66	Fair
21.	29	72	79	Cloudy
22.	29	92	73	Fair
23.	29	63	60	Ditto
24.	29	47	50	Rain
25.	29	56	55	Cloudy
26.	29	45	43	Rain
27.	29	42	54	Ditto

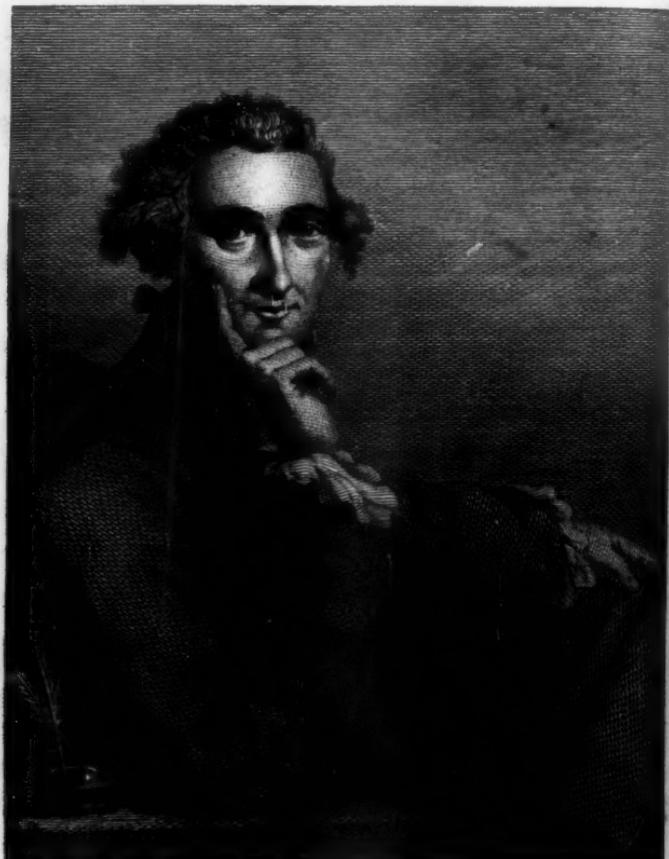
The TABLE of RETURNS of CORN not having been given in the Gazette, we insert the following List of Prices instead thereof.

July 4 to July 9—July 11 to July 16.

	s.	d.	s.	d.
Wheat	5	9	5	6
Rye	3	3	3	3
Barley	3	0	3	0
Oats	2	5	2	6
Beans	3	5	3	5

Literary Magazine.

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Pain, junr.

Augus. 1792.

M^r. THO' PAINE.

Published at the Authors's Shop 579, by C. Dore & N. S. Priddy.

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